The Nation.

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The Week.

As we go to press, not only is Mr. Cleveland elected by an overwhelming majority of the Electoral College, as well as by a popular majority, but there seems good reason to hope that he may be supported by a Congress Democratic in both branches. The House of Representatives is Democratic by a great majority. The Senate now consists of 47 Republicans, 39 Democrats, and 2 Farmers' Alliance men. The Democrats have gained one Senator in this State. There seems no doubt that Nevada will return Senator Stewart as an anti-Republican. He took his stand against the Republicans on the Force Bill two years ago, and he has openly opposed Harrison and the whole Republican policy during the late canvass. The loss of two other seats would cost the Republicans their control of the upper branch, for there is no issue on which they can win over the two Independents, and, in case of a tie, Vice-President Stevenson, as the presiding officer, would decide the question against them. The chances seem at least even that the Republicans have lost the Legislatures in at least two of these five warmly-contested States which are to choose Senators — Wyoming, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, and Nebraska. Even if there proves to be a nominal Republican plurality of two or four, it is not a plurality upon which dependence can be placed. Two Republican Senators voted against the McKinley Bill two years ago, and it is not unreasonable to expect that Republican votes can be secured, if necessary, for its repeal. On every account, it is to be hoped that both branches of the legislative department may be in sympathy with the Executive.

Returns from about three-fourths of Massachusetts indicate that Gov. Russell has been reëlected by a small plurality. If the full vote sustains these indications, it will prove one of the greatest personal triumphs ever achieved by a public man in this country. Massachusetts is a Republican State, and has chosen Harrison electors by a considerable majority, but there is so much independence among her voters that about 10,000 men who supported Harrison for President at the same time voted for Russell for Governor, on the ground that he was the better man of the two candidates and deserved another term. It is a matter of little consequence to the Governor, however, whether he is reëlected or not. In either case no man of his generation has a brighter political future before him, and the best of it is that he deserves all that he has had or may yet receive.

The result in Connecticut is cause for especial congratulation. Not only does Cleveland carry the State by a very large plurality, but the Democrats appear to have elected the Governor by a majority on the popular vote, and there will be no more Bulkeleyism. The spectacle presented by the old-time "land of steady habits" for two years past has been most discreditable, and it is encouraging to find that Republicans enough have turned against their party to put an end to the disgrace.

The State law makes a bet on an election a disqualification for voting, but it is never enforced by challenge or otherwise. For a good while, however, betting on the result was confined to the sporting fraternity, who bet on everything which has an element of chance in it. When it first spread beyond this class, the stakes were trifles, such as hats, boxes of cigars, cases of champagne, dinners, and the like, or submission on the part of the loser to some sort of public penalty, such as wheeling somebody in a barrow on the street or walking down Broadway with his coat turned inside out. But within the last eight years, that is, since 1884, the practice has grown to such a degree that betting on the election has become almost as common among the community at large as betting on horse-races among the occupants of the grand stand. What is most amazing and alarming is, however, that the party committees have taken it up as a regular and legitimate and effective mode of influencing the opinion of the voters—a not unnatural result of the raising of the tariff issue, let us add, and of the conversion of the Republican party into a business organization, pure and simple, for pecuniary gain. The committees have since 1888 made a regular practice of arming betting men with large sums of money to be "placed" on the chances of their respective candidates. Quay did this with remarkable success in 1888, for, under our new régime of secret purchase of votes, nothing spreads more terror than the news that the other side are offering heavy odds, because people think it shows that they have "squared" some boss, or bought up some "block" of voters, or made some sort of an arrangement in some doubtful district or State which will insure them the victory. Twenty years ago, if this had been done by a campaign committee, it would have been done on the sly, with some care as to privacy. It is now done openly and with loud shrieks of defiance.

In truth, "the use of money in elections" has reached a pitch of which the gloomiest pessimist of half a century ago could never have dreamed. It is almost a point of honor now with a rich man who interests himself in politics at all, to back his opinion of his candidate's prospects by laying odds on him. The amounts offered, too, rise in every canvass. A million, or any part of it, has been offered in this campaign by one man. Poorer men "place" what their means will allow, and the practice has spread through all ranks of society. The clerks and office-boys are all betting on the election, just as the bad ones who rob the till bet on horse races. How long will it be before the tills begin to be robbed in order to back up the cause of protection or free trade? We hope thoughtful men and women all over the country are reflecting on the probable effect on the rising generation, the lads of from fifteen to twenty, of getting their first view of American politics in the betting-ring, and seeing the Presidential election treated as a game of chance, on which it is no harm for the best man to "take a flyer." They will do well, too, to consider the probability that a man who has staked ten thousand dollars on the result, will refuse to cover himself by advancing a Quay or a Carter one or two thousand as "soap" to make assurance sure.

The latest appeal of the McKinleyites was for "stability" in tariff legislation. They assured their victims that what is needed by business interests is the avoidance of changes, and that steadiness could be secured only by keeping the Republican party in power. One scrap of history will suffice to demolish this argument. The Republican party has made twenty-six changes in the tariff by separate bills since it came into power, viz.:

Act of March	2, 1861	Act of July	14, 1870
Act of Aug.	6, 1861	Act of May	1, 1872
Act of Dec.	24, 1861	Act of June	6, 1872
Act of July	14, 1862	Act of June	22, 1874
Act of March	3, 1863	Act of Feb.	8, 1875
Act of April	29, 1864	Act of March	3, 1875
Act of June	30, 1864	Act of July	1, 1879
Act of March	3, 1865	Act of June	14, 1880
Act of May	16, 1866	Act of May	6, 1882
Act of July	28, 1866	Act of March	3, 1883
Act of March	2, 1867	Act of May	9, 1890
Act of March	25, 1867	Act of June	10, 1890
Act of Feb.	24, 1869	Act of Oct.	1, 1890

If there has been any one speech in the campaign which has summed up the moral position of the party in whose behalf it was spoken, it is the speech of Thomas B. Reed in Cooper Union last Saturday evening. These were the ex-Speaker's closing words, than which there could not possibly have been a more fit and proper closing to the Republican campaign of 1892:

"I am very honestly in favor of the Republican party. [Cheers.] I am not in favor of the Republican party on account of its principles, but on account of itself. I believe that principles do not make parties, but that parties make principles. [Applause.] The only wise and sensible thing for a man to do in a practical world is to find out which is the best crowd and then belong to it. [Applause.] And when he has once found the best crowd and has belonged to it, the best thing he can do is to keep on."

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Of Mr. Reed's honesty in making this declaration there can be no doubt. The declaration is too characteristic, too explicit, too thoroughly accurate as a picture of the present mental condition of the Republican party to be the fruit of anything but sincerity. That so monstrous and stupid a confession of faith could be made by a conspicuous party leader at the last great meeting of a Presidential compaign, renders unnecessary further comment on the recent stampede of American intellect out of that party's ranks. To a man in ordinary mental condition Mr. Reed's doctrine would be sufficiently blasted by showing the absolute impossibility of party purity or party reform, of good government or independent citizenship, under such a rulership. It could be met by showing that, with Reed's proposition put conscientiously into practice by every citizen, the voters coming of age and the immigrants brought up for naturalization could alone serve to alter the results, for good or bad, of a previous election.

If there were nothing else to account for the extraordinary way in which the college graduates and professors have abandoned the Republican party, reason enough would be found in the speeches which McKinley has been delivering on trade and finance. That a man who has fathered one of the most noted pieces of economic legislation of modern times, in the American Congress, and is Governor of one of the greatest States in the Union, should be as ignorant of the mechanism of international trade as he has shown himself to be, naturally makes educated Americans blush for their country. His ridiculous story about our gold receipts from England last year, would be punishable in most preparatory schools in England and Germany. When we export more than we import, the balance is accounted for, as a rule, in one of three ways, or in all three: we may take payment of it or part of it in gold; if so, the amount appears in the Custom-house returns. If it does not appear there, it shows that we have by our exports been paying interest on our debts due in Europe (such as railroad bonds and other bonds), or have been providing funds to meet drafts on London which we have given to other countries in payment for goods which we could not obtain by barter. In South America in particular, we are constantly compelled to pay for products in this way, and the reason is that through free trade London has become the great clearing-house of the world, although Mr. Blaine some years ago described the process as the result of cunning British machinations against American commerce.

Moreover, nations do not trade with each other as nations. The United States and Great Britain do not exchange products as political corporations. Individual Englishmen carry on the international commerce with individual Americans, and they settle their balances just as rational New Yorkers do in trading with rational Massachusetts men. They do not give twelve months' credit, and then wind up at the end of the year by transferring enormous masses of gold. They remit promptly, when they get the goods, by buying a draft from bankers, and the bankers provide for the draft by sending goods to be sold in the place where the draft is to be paid, or by setting them off against other drafts due in the place in which the draft is made. The operations of commerce as McKinley and Depew describe them are not to be witnessed anywhere but in lunatic asylums, and even there only with the permission of the keepers. We ought to say, however, that Mr. McKinley is more excusable than Mr. Depew, for Mr. Depew is a prominent figure in the financial world and the President of a great railroad, whereas Mr. McKinley's pretensions to financial knowledge or understanding excite great merriment, we hear, among his intimate friends and neighbors. Between them both, however, they have been making the college professors put dust and ashes on their respective heads.

It is probable that the stiff lying of Republican orators about balances of English gold paid over to us in the past year, is partly to be excused by their recalling the vast amounts of "British gold" which for many Presidential campaigns used to be poured out in this country by the Cobden Club to defeat the Republican party. They know that this was the fact, for the highest Republican authority asserted it, and yet that gold, which came over by the ton, cut no figure in the Custom house returns, but was smuggled in on the persons of British emissaries. What more natural than for them to infer that gold always entered the country in that furtive way? Indeed, how could England be expected to acknowledge openly that we had beaten her out of $230,000,000 in gold, and what other course could it be supposed that she would pursue than to bring it here secretly, pay it over at midnight under a solemn pledge of secrecy, and then go home brazenly to deny that she had ever sent it? Some such plan must have been followed if what McKinley says is true, and he must be true though every man is a liar.

While Gov. McKinley has been manufacturing campaign capital out of the report of New York's Labor Commissioner for 1891, he has, with malice aforethought, pigeon-holed, ever since January, the last report of the Labor Commissioner of his own State. Moreover, although this report has been for two months electrotyped ready for printing, the State Printing Committee—all Republicans—have up to date failed to supply the State printer with the necessary paper on which to issue the (for their purposes) inconvenient data. It has, however, leaked out, through the investigations of the Democratic National Committee, that the suppressed 1891 report indicates that in one State at least the Republican protective tariff system not only fails to raise wages, but has actually brought about a reduction all along the line; this reduction being largest in such protected industries as mining, agricultural works, engine and boiler works, stove and iron castings, etc. Comparing the reports for 1890 and 1891, we find that, after deducting the cost of materials from the value of manufactured product, the balance—the joint earnings of capital and labor—is divided as follows:

	Capital.	Labor.
1890..	37.34 per ct.	62.39 per ct.
1891..	39.77 per ct. (inc.)	60.23 per ct. (dec.)

In 1890 the 80,305 employees engaged in industrial establishments earned an annual average wage of $492.91; in 1891 the annual average wage of the 99,257 employees was only $470.05, or a loss of $22.86 per man.

The grape-growers in western New York have just found out the swindle in the McKinley Act which was devised to give the California wine-producers an advantage over them. It is embraced in sections 42–49 of the act. It provides that any producer of wine who is also a distiller of brandy, may use the spirits which he makes to fortify the wine to the extent of 14 per cent. of the volume of the wine without paying the internal-revenue tax on the brandy, provided that the wine in its natural state contains not less than 4 per cent. of saccharine matter. In order to avail one's self of the benefits of this act, the following conditions must be fulfilled:

(1.) The wine-grower must be a distiller.
(2.) He must use grape brandy to fortify his wines—not whiskey or alcohol.
(3.) It must be his own brandy.
(4.) His wine must be sweet wine, such as ports and malagas, not the hocks which are produced in New York and Ohio.

Now all these conditions were imposed in order to give the California wine-producers (and only a few of those—namely, those who are rich enough to own distilleries) an advantage over the wine-producers east of the Rocky Mountains. The consequence of this is that California wine is now offered for sale in Steuben County, New York, at the very gates of the vineyards, at 13 cents per gallon less than it can be produced for there. The point is easy to see. The California producer gets 14 per cent. of the strength of his wine free of tax. The tax is 90 cents per gallon, and 14 per cent. of that is as nearly as possible 13 cents.

The announcement was made two or three weeks ago that the Temescal tin mines of California had been closed, the workmen discharged, and the whole thing given up as a bad job. This is the mine whose output was advertised by a

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New York firm last spring in such a curious way—the advertisers begging as a special favor that customers would not order too much of it at one time, because they wanted everybody to have a fair chance to get some. It was some of this Temescal tin that furnished the background to a photograph of President Harrison when he was in California two years ago. It would, perhaps, be nearer the truth to say that President Harrison furnished the foreground to a photograph of the tin. However that may have been, the photograph had a great run, and the tin-mine was set down to the credit of the McKinley Bill, although its discovery dates from the year 1867, and lawsuits respecting the title to the property began about that time and continued without intermission for twenty years. The need of a political tin-mine was almost as great as the need of political tin plate, because there is a duty of four cents per pound on metallic tin in the McKinley Bill, to take effect on the first day of next July. This duty was enacted at the instance of the Senators of South Dakota, in the usual log-rolling way. They fancied that they had tin-mines, or would have if the price was high enough; but the Harney Peak mines were provokingly slow in getting to work, and men of science (in the pay of foreigners, no doubt) scoffed at them. Hence the necessity of clinging to the Temescal mine at all hazards. It was like a certain passage in sacred literature, of which a learned commentator said that it was probably spurious, but must not be given up without a fight.

It has come out that Gen. Draper, one of the millionaire manufacturers of Massachusetts and a Republican candidate for Congress in the Ninth (Dedham) District of that State, is now, and for years past has been, in receipt of a pension of $25 per month for disabilities incurred in the war, and acknowledges an aggregate receipt of pension money of $5,000. Gen. Draper justifies his application for and receipt of a pension on the ground that he is entitled to it, although his disabilities are not sufficient to prevent his management of a great manufacturing business, the Presidency of the Home Market Club, and the management of a very active political campaign, saying that he gives away every year to the soldiers much more than the amount of his pension. It is lucky for Gen. Draper that he did not serve in the Revolutionary army, for under the administration of Gen. Washington the rule that Congress adopted in the matter of pensions was that, however great might be the services of a soldier, or however great his disabilities incurred in the service, he was not entitled to a pension if he had other and adequate means of support.

A remarkable case of political indifferentism is reported from Princeton College. President Patton announces that he cares nothing for politics. "I am interested in philosophy and theology, and these are the only things I want to be known in. I vote for neither party." It must be a curious kind of theology or philosophy that a man can be thus content to study *in vacuo*, with no desire to know how they operate in society. What does it avail a philosophical recluse to speculate on the highest good if, in the meantime, through failure to attend to his political duties, he allows himself and his fellow-citizens to be robbed of highest and lowest goods alike? And theology must be a more unpractical discipline than is commonly supposed if it compels a man to give all his thoughts to abstract propositions, and allows him no time to consider the actual effects of theological tenets on civic life. Wanamaker, for example, is a stout upholder of the system of theology with which President Patton is identified, and we should say his notorious exploits in debauching the suffrage were fully as deserving of study as the iniquities of any heretic that ever lived. In short, we do not believe that any man has a right to shirk his responsibilities as a citizen on the ground that he spends his time in the still air of delightful studies. To say that you are interested in theology and philosophy, but not in the practical affairs of life, is to recall the newspaper humorist's saying of the Czar, that he had established arbitrary government to his perfect satisfaction, but that he did not dare step out of doors to see how it worked.

One is struck, in reading the correspondence between Senator Sherman and his brother, the General, now publishing in the *Century*, with the low opinion held of the Chairmanship of the Ways and Means Committee in 1861. Appointed to that position after being defeated in the struggle for the Speakership, Mr. Sherman found it very wearisome and unsatisfactory. That was before the discovery of the truth that the Chairman of the Ways and Means has the prosperity of the country in his keeping, and that it is his function to apportion profits and wages in every shop in the land. In 1861 his business was simply to lay taxes for carrying on the Government; now he is courted by powerful manufacturers, and his favors sought as slavishly as were the grants of monopolies by monarchs of four centuries ago. The correspondence referred to promises to be of great interest in many ways in lighting up the early history of the Republican party, but in none, perhaps, more than in marking the contrast between the youth of a party, devoted to moral and patriotic ends, and its last years, given over to the service of mammon.

Can anybody explain the object, aim, or policy of treating all alien cabin passengers arriving in steamers from Europe, and not residents of the United States, as "immigrants" and subjecting them to twenty days' detention? Orders to this effect have, it is said, been received from Washington, but the motive remains a profound mystery. Some of our pessimists detect many symptoms, especially in the Republican party, of a rapid assimilation of the United States to China in our attitude towards foreigners. The hostility to foreign goods, they say, has begotten hostility to foreign science, literature, and art, and is slowly producing hostility to people who go to Europe for pleasure and unwillingness to let them return. The laudable desire to prevent Europe from dumping her criminals, paupers, cripples, and Anarchists and ignoramuses on us is now being made a pretext for keeping out *all* Europeans who have not already got a foothold here, as if they were infected in some way. In good keeping with this is the McKinley and Depew rejoicing over the suffering they think they have caused among the European poor, and the pride McKinley takes in being hated by the whole human race outside the Republican party. There is in all this a strong savor of the politics and morals of the Central Flowery Land, and we are bound to say President Harrison's quarantine begins to look as if it had been dictated by the Vermilion Pencil.

It seems as if one of the cleverest bits of imposture of modern times was the book known as the 'Englishman in Paris.' The authorship of it has been traced to a Mr. Philip Vandam, a Dutchman of the Jewish persuasion, who, Mr. Lucy says in the *Tribune*, has long lived in Paris, attached to "the outer skirts of journalism"; and "the outer skirts of journalism" are no better in Paris than they are in New York. The first volume is a very clever piece of work, stuffed full of entertaining gossip of the courts both of Louis Philippe and Louis Napoleon, most of it having the air of coming from somebody who enjoyed what used to be called the "petites entrées," or the privilege of running in and out and seeing the royal personages as an intimate private friend, and belonged to the most select Paris clubs. Pains were taken in it, too, in all sorts of small ways, to fasten the authorship on Sir Richard Wallace, who was for forty years one of the chief personages of the English colony; and on the strength of this the book had in the months of July and August a great sale, until Sir Richard's friends and his widow roused themselves in contradiction. Mr. Vandam, it appears, is only forty years old, so that his recollections of the Courts of Louis Philippe and of Louis Napoleon, even if he had been a favored guest in them, would be very feeble. As matters stand, he appears to be simply a wonderfully clever compiler and romancer, and has got a remarkable "scoop" on the other gentlemen who cling with him to the "outer skirts of journalism" in Paris.

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A GREAT EXAMPLE.

WHEN Mr. Cleveland, in December of 1887, sent in his anti-tariff message, there was hardly a prominent man in his party who did not think he had made a great mistake. Even those who agreed to the full with his opinions thought the publication of them a piece of magnificent folly, for which he and the party were sure to suffer. His reëlection before he wrote his message was, as he stood, all but certain. Even the Republicans, large numbers of whom had come over to him as, on the whole, a wise and prudent statesman, admitted this. It seemed as if his canvass, in spite of the poor antecedents of his party, would be a walkover. He aggravated his fault, from the politicians' point of view, by failure to consult with them before taking his plunge. The language of the message was not sufficiently studied, some said. It showed want of thorough familiarity with the workings of the tariff, said others. Others, again, wished that before he wrote it he had made a more thorough study of political economy. But, for one reason or another, all except a few of the more enthusiastic tariff-reformers thought he had destroyed his own usefulness as a candidate, and condemned his party to another period of eclipse. What groaning and moaning over him there was among "the practical men" during the remainder of the winter! How they cursed the Mugwumps and the professors for leading him astray! How sure they were that the American people would not stand such foolishness! How glad his enemies—the Hill men, Tammany men, and political debauchees of every description—were that he had planned his own destruction and would soon trouble the party councils no more.

His defeat came almost as a matter of course. His message took the public, bred in protectionist fallacies, by surprise. It alarmed the manufacturers, and gave the Quays a larger fund than they had ever had before to save their monopoly. He was nominated largely because the party had no one else of any prominence to put up, and almost with a certainty of failure. Mr. Cleveland went back into private life with serenity, leaving his message to be pondered, and leaving the Republicans in full possession of the Government, with full power to push the protectionist principle to any extreme they pleased. It then soon appeared that the message was a stroke of genius; that it had at last secured for the tariff thorough popular attention and discussion, such as no speech, article, or book could secure for it. Its very simplicity, its freedom from details, its avoidance of the reserves, qualifications, and discriminations which a more erudite economist would have introduced into it, proved its greatest merit. There never was a more signal illustration of the poet's saying, that a man's best "armor is his honest thought, and simple truth his utmost skill." The fact that the author had staked his chance of the Presidency on it, had issued it in defiance of the advice of the worldly-wise, and was prepared to live or die by it, was an appeal of the utmost power to the love and admiration which the American people, and all people of the Western world, feel for the man who is not afraid—who says, with the noble army of martyrs and the goodly company of patriots and reformers of all ages and all countries, "Here I stand. I can do no otherwise, God help me."

In his letter about silver Mr. Cleveland gave another and almost as striking a proof of the wisdom of his boldness. When he wrote it, in February, 1891, his party was apparently bent on rushing down another steep place to its ruin by conniving at or avoiding collision with the currency lunatics, who, in conjunction with a band of tricky mining speculators, were trying to debase the currency of a great commercial nation. The "practical men" again thought that, as a possible candidate, he ought carefully to hold his peace about this immense folly and wickedness, or, if he spoke at all, clothe his thought in such cloudy phraseology that it could be made to bear two or three meanings, if not wholly to conceal it from the popular understanding. But he refused to be a party to this little stroke of low cunning, and, taking his courage, as the French say, in both hands, gave the silver folly a blow from which it never recovered. He blew it clean out of the party mind and the party platform by a single shot. Again the shrewd politicians sat down on the party stoop and wept, and prepared sorrowfully to nominate a first-class juggler in the person of David B. Hill, who was to show the wretched Mugwumps how much better it was to be able to keep six balls in the air at once than to be able to show the absurdity of a fluctuating currency. In one year that letter of February had again confounded the shrewd, and put heart and hope into the timid and shifty.

Mr. Cleveland's triumph to-day has been largely due to the young voters who have come on the stage since the reign of passion and prejudice came to an end and the era of discussion has opened. If the last canvass has consisted largely of appeals to reason, to facts, to the lessons of human experience, to the teachings of Christianity and science, and has brought confusion on the preachers of mediæval barbarism and absurdity; if it has put a stamp of horror and contempt on the attempts to make mutual hate a necessary accompaniment of peaceful industrial competition—thus furnishing Socialism with one of its best weapons—it is to Mr. Cleveland, let us tell them, they owe it. But they are indebted to him for something far more valuable than even this—for an example of splendid courage in the defence and assertion of honestly formed opinions; of Roman constancy under defeat, and of patient reliance on the power of deliberation and persuasion on the American people. Nothing is more important, in these days of "boodle," of indifference, of cheap bellicose patriotism, than that this confidence in the might of common sense and sound doctrine and free speech should be kept alive.

BOSTON BANKERS ON STATE BANK-NOTES.

SOME of the most conservative bank presidents in Boston have prepared and signed an argument in favor of a repeal, on suitable conditions, of the 10 per cent. tax on State bank-notes. They show in the first place that the present national-bank currency has shrunk $200,000,000 since it reached its maximum, and that the conditions of its existence are such that it must wholly disappear when the bonds are paid off. They consider it illusory to expect that any United States bonds will be issued or reissued, even at as low a rate as 2 per cent. interest, to form the basis of national-bank circulation, and they do not consider such a policy wise or just, since it would be a permanent unnecessary tax on the people. They consider some system of bank-note issues desirable, and they agree with Mr. John Sherman in his Senatorial opinion that the popular will has been expressed adversely to the continuance of the national system beyond the existence of the national bonds. They consider Mr. Sherman's later opinion, expressed on the stump at North Fairfield, Ohio, that the national bank-notes may be replaced by United States notes "resting on the honor, wealth, and resources of 65,000,000 people" as objectionable, being merely an extension of the greenback system in time of peace. Another objection to it is, that the act of issuing greenbacks is the borrowing of money for which the Government has no use, since by the hypothesis the bonds will have been paid off.

The signers of this paper then take up the proposed repeal of the 10 per cent. tax. They agree with the Democratic campaign text-book that the repeal should apply only to banks in States which come up to a certain standard. They think that the conditions which prevailed in some parts of the country before the war, and which led to, or at all events did not prevent, "wild-cat and red-dog" currency, have long ago disappeared, but they are not willing to take any risks on that score. The power of Congress to impose conditions on the issue of circulating notes has been affirmed by the Supreme Court on two different grounds. One is the taxing power, which the court said was in the discretion of the legislative branch of the Government exclusively. The other is the right of Congress to restrain the circulation of any money issued in competition with its own.

No question will be raised as to the power of Congress to impose conditions by those who hold that the present tax is

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constitutional. The question what conditions ought to be imposed is a matter for deliberation hereafter. The signers of this paper make a suggestion or two which ought to have weight. They suggest in the first place that any State which allows bank-notes to be issued should guarantee their prompt redemption, and should also allow itself to be sued under the contract of guarantee. The objection that the State's guarantee would make the notes so issued "bills of credit" of the State, which are prohibited by the Constitution, is met by adducing a Supreme Court decision to the contrary. The conditions of issue suggested in the paper are not exclusive, however. The security of the noteholder may be hedged about in other ways by requiring the deposit of bonds of different kinds. The State's guarantee is, nevertheless, looked upon as the most important consideration, because it will enlist the self-interest of the States on the side of a sound banking system.

It will occur to all who are competent to discuss such questions that the nearer we come to a perfect system of State bank-notes, the nearer we come to the present national-bank system. This is true. The national system, although unelastic and rather slow moving, is not only the best one we have ever had, but probably the best we ever can have. Given a permanent national debt as the basis of security, and it would be idle to think of any change. But a permanent national debt it is idle to talk about. Nobody is in favor of that; nobody ought to be in favor of it. An issue of bonds merely as security for bank notes is the same thing to the Government as handing its own notes to the bank to be loaned to the public for the bank's benefit. The case is different while the bonds are still outstanding, for it can make no difference to the Government in a pecuniary sense whether they are held by A or B or C, by national banks, or savings banks, or private investors.

Of course, there is an important question back of this, namely, whether other security may not be found to take the place of the bonds in the national system, so as to rejuvenate that system, and whether that would not be better than any State system. That question was learnedly discussed in a recent paper by Mr. Cornwell of Buffalo, in *Rhoads's Journal of Banking*. Of course this will have to be discussed in a wider forum before the bank-note question is settled. Meanwhile the concluding paragraph of the Boston argument is worthy of all commendation, viz.:

"Our appeal is, therefore, for a sober consideration of this question apart from party politics; and we believe an unsound system cannot be sprung upon the country unless this sober consideration is wanting."

LEGISLATIVE DISCOURAGEMENT OF BUSINESS.

It is the theory of representative government, as expounded in the treatises upon that subject, that legislators consider and adopt such measures as are manifestly calculated to promote the general welfare. In practice, in the State of New York at least, legislators discharge no such function. The Legislature fulfils Mr. Thomas Reed's ideal in not being a deliberative body. All its acts, it may be said, are prepared outside of the legislative halls, and most of them are dictated by special interests. Unless there is some "politics" in a bill, it generally meets with little opposition, except that if there is "money in it" a species of rude natural equity requires that the spoils shall not be greedily appropriated by a favored few. The general public seldom demands the passage of any measure except a measure of repeal, and, as a rule, is ignorant of the laws by which its conduct is supposed to be regulated until some new hindrance to business is disclosed. The Legislature of New York finished its work last May, but its acts were not published in accessible form until the latter part of October. During that interval it has been practically impossible even for lawyers to ascertain the existing state of the law; which will not seem incredible if it is added that the work of the session is represented by two bulky volumes of some 2,500 pages, containing 715 different statutes.

Let it not be supposed, however, that a perusal of these 715 statutes will enable any one to determine what the law is. Some of these statutes are general in character, covering great departments of human activity and completely restating or altering previous legislation. By one of these statutes over a thousand acts or parts of acts are repealed, and altogether the number repealed must be between 3,000 and 4,000. To ascertain the present state of the law, he that knew it in its former state must compare the new statutes with all that are repealed, a labor of truly appalling proportions. The idea that any business man can now conduct the affairs of a corporation in which he is interested without the best legal advice is preposterous. Lawyers themselves must for a long time advise reluctantly, and it will be only after extensive and protracted litigation that it will be known how the ordinary transactions of business are to be carried on according to the present statutory requirements.

It is hardly necessary to say that the Legislature which enacted these statutes knew little about them. It may be doubted if a single member of the Legislature read them all, and it is certain that many members neither read them nor could have understood them if they had. This extensive reconstruction of the law took place at the hands of a commission appointed by Gov. Hill, composed of men of whom it need only be said that they are much better known from their connection with his political activity than from their professional distinction. It may be conceded that a codification of our statutes was desirable, although no coherent demand had been made for it. It may be granted that a commission might have been made up of men whose names would have assured the profession of the wisdom of their action. But to commit a labor of this kind, which requires not only the most profound and extensive knowledge of law, but also an expert acquaintance with the conduct of financial affairs—which demands the qualifications at once of the man of business, the lawyer, the economist, and the statesman—to the hands of Gov. Hill's pet henchmen, was an act of outrageous recklessness. The full consequences of the act cannot for a long time be known; but if their character may be judged from such as are already apparent, a long heritage of mischief awaits the business of the State of New York.

The first fruits were quickly harvested. The new law applicable to corporations, enacted in 1890, contained some provisions so vexatious as to oblige the Legislature to repeal them at the earliest possible opportunity. Some others aroused such universal complaint as to compel the commissioners to redraw the whole statute within two years of its enactment, leaving out many of the exasperating and senseless features which they had elaborated. A decision just made, which does not seem to have attracted sufficient attention in Wall Street, illustrates the formidable character of the innovations which remain to be abolished. A stockholder in a certain corporation pledged his stock as collateral security for a loan, and gave the pledgee an irrevocable proxy therewith. But when the election occurred, the pledgee found that he could not vote on his proxy, the pledger having decided to vote the stock himself, and the candidates who would have been elected by the vote of the pledgee were defeated. The court held that the new law required this result. Nor would it have been different, apparently, had the proxy not been irrevocable. Under the circumstances no proxy could have been legally given, nor under any circumstances can any proxy be given for any term that the giver cannot revoke in five minutes if he is so disposed.

By the act of 1890 all persons acquiring stock within thirty days of an election were disfranchised, nor could any one vote or issue a proxy if he had pledged his stock, although it stood in his name. As it was obvious that legal elections under this law were likely to be few and far between, the Commissioners graciously reduced the period of disfranchisement to ten days, and restored, as we understand it—for no one may now positively declare what the law is—the right of suffrage to pledgers of stock. But let those houses—for well-known reasons the most substantial houses in the street—in whose name stock is kept standing after they have parted with it, beware of giving their proxies. We know not what punishment they may render themselves

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liable to, but we should not be surprised if it should be discovered to be the penitentiary, and they may not improbably vitiate most of the elections of the principal corporations of the country.

Since corporations are numbered by hundreds of thousands, and since there are perfectly legitimate reasons for conducting business under corporate management, it does not seem wise to make this management complicated and difficult. Most corporations consist of a very few members, and their corporate proceedings are, as a rule, very informal. A few busy men meet together for a few minutes, and, knowing just what they want done, do it quickly. But the Commissioners will have none of this. In their view every act of a corporation is to be regarded by the law with suspicion, and every stockholder as presumptively actuated by iniquitous motives. If an election is to be held, although there may not be half-a-dozen persons interested, all of whom could be easily notified, the public is to be kept advised by a newspaper advertisement for four weeks. At such election the inspectors must be sworn and must file copies of their oaths with the County Clerk, together with a certificate of the result of the election. Every stockholder must on demand make oath that he has not, "either directly, indirectly, or impliedly, received any promise or any sum of money, or anything of value," to influence the giving of his vote, and that he has not sold or otherwise disposed of his interest in or title to any shares of stock upon which he offers to vote. A proxy must make equally solemn and explicit declaration of the purity of his motives, and of his belief in the integrity of the title to the shares which he proposes to vote.

We could go on indefinitely pointing out needless and arbitrary requirements inserted in recent years in our corporation law, but for the present this will suffice. It may be submitted in behalf of the business men of the State that corporations are no more dishonestly managed than ordinary business partnerships and require no more legislative interference. The fact that fraud sometimes occurs is no reason for hampering all honest business with vexatious technicalities, especially since these technicalities will have the effect, not of hindering fraud, but of entangling hosts of innocent people in unintentional violations of law. The old corporation law had been thoroughly construed and was thoroughly understood. It might have been simplified, but it was easy for business men to comply with it. Under malign influences a legislative policy has been of late adopted in New York which leads to the formation of corporations under the more enlightened laws of other States, and which will, if persisted in, lead to the transfer of much of their business as well. Such a policy is unworthy of a commercial community, and ought to draw such vigorous protests from business men as to lead to its abandonment.

THE "DUCHESS OF MALFI" AT THE INDEPENDENT THEATRE.

LONDON, October 25, 1892.

THAT the drama has fallen to the lowest depths in England, it would take a bold man to deny. With gorgeous pageants dubbed "Shakspere" prospering at the Lyceum; with a patent for turning tragedy, comedy, and farce into melodrama controlling the Haymarket; with real turf, and real water, and real horses drawing rapturous crowds to Drury Lane; with the variety-show usurping the legitimate stage on every side, it is no wonder that now more than ever one turns to the Independent Theatre Society for the promised production of new and unconventional plays, the promised presentation to the public of hitherto unknown or misdirected talent among actors and actresses.

The Society's first season went far to prove that it is easier to announce new plays than to obtain them. Still, when everything else failed, there was always Ibsen to fall back upon, until indeed, for a while, it seemed as if the Society had been founded for no other object than the encouragement of the Scandinavian drama. However, it was probably realized that for the beginning of the second season it would be as well to make a new departure, and Webster's "Duchess of Malfi," as already explained in the *Nation*, was prepared for the first performances. So long as no original play was forthcoming, the choice could not have been better. If modern dramatists refuse to arise, ready armed and equipped, at Mr. Archer's word of command, if we cannot create a drama of our own, the most sensible alternative is to revive the great work of the old men which the still greater genius of Shakspere has cast into the shade. Of all the Elizabethan plays, perhaps not one is known (if only by name) as widely as the "Duchess of Malfi," perhaps not one suggests, even to those who have not read it, the same degree of tragic intensity and dramatic strength.

> "The very throne of night, her very crown,
> A man lays hand on, and usurps her right,"

Swinburne says of Webster, and to the average reader Webster means the "Duchess of Malfi." The tragedy has been revived from time to time; it is associated with the successes of at least one actor of renown, Betterton; and it has never been put on the stage without producing the same impression of power almost Æschylean, of horrors poetically woven into a masterpiece surpassed by none. But it is some forty or fifty years since it was last revived at Sadler's Wells, nor did it appear likely that it would appeal to the fancy of Mr. Irving, who is wary even when most enterprising, or to Mr. Beerbohm Tree, who has long ago given up his daring but not paying weekly experiments. Therefore, to drama and literature alike, it seemed as if the Society's choice must render valuable and important service. So thoroughly was this appreciated that Mr. Irving came forward to second Mr. Grein's efforts, and lent, from the Lyceum's rich wardrobe, costumes and stage properties to the not too wealthy Independent Theatre. It is seldom that I have looked forward to a theatrical event with so much interest.

And now as to the performance itself. Perhaps I might as well say at once how deeply I regret that the Society is so much more praiseworthy in intention than in achievement. In the present deplorable dramatic stagnation, one does not like to find fault where there is certainly a striving in the right direction. But unfortunately the effect of a play upon the stage depends wholly and entirely on the manner in which it is interpreted by actors and actresses, and this is doubly true when the play is a tragedy in verse, dating back to a day when dramatic ideals were not as ours, and when, in point of dramatic construction, Shakspere was a giant among pigmies. I venture to say that it would be absolutely out of the question to give an unrevised version of the "Duchess of Malfi," though this fact does not excuse the Independent Theatre Society's unexpected squeamishness in suppressing some of the more vigorous Elizabethan passages. The changes made, however, were chiefly in the arrangement of the scenes, and here Mr. William Poel, the Shakspere scholar, had a work made to his hand. But, despite his labors, scene followed scene and incident succeeded incident with an irrelevancy and a suddenness that left one fairly bewildered. The deadly hatred of *Duke* and *Cardinal* for their sister, even before she has married her steward without their leave, one had to accept simply, without asking for a reason, as one accepts the screen in the modern society play, or the convenient arrangement of doors in the modern farce. The motives of *Bosola*, the hired murderer, discoursing of pity, singing the dirge, as it were, of his own victim, was another problem for which one did not seek the solution. The intrigue of the *Cardinal* with *Julia* apparently had no other use in the tragedy save to add one more corpse to the many strewing the stage in that indescribable fifth act, which even Webster's most ardent admirers think superfluous. In a word, to make the play, even after revision, not only convincing, but possible, to a modern audience, it must be consummately well rendered by trained and experienced actors who understand the value of the lines and their proper delivery. The programme, on the night of the performance, quoted the critical appreciations of Lamb, who thought that only a Webster could move a horror skilfully or touch a soul to the quick; of Mr. Swinburne, who declared no poet to be morally nobler than Webster; of Mr. Symonds, who finds his excellence in his power of blending tenderness and pity with the exhibition of acute moral anguish; of Mr. Gosse, who ranks the "Duchess of Malfi" as second only to "King Lear." But to read a drama in the library is a very different thing from seeing it performed on the stage. If the beauty and power depend upon the lines rather than the construction, then, when those lines are cruelly murdered in the mouths of second-rate or inexperienced actors, beauty and power disappear and tragedy degenerates into burlesque.

Miss Mary Rorke, who played the *Duchess*, is an actress of some refinement and dignity in mediocre parts, but her entire misconception of what was expected of her was shown by her close study of Miss Ellen Terry's methods. It were a charity not to give the name of the man who parodied the *Duke*, and ranted and raved up and down the stage, so that from the very first, instead of waiting until the end of the fourth act, *Bosola* might have proclaimed him distraught. But to me it was *Bosola* (Mr. Murray Carson) who was the chief offender, because of his greater pretensions. He began at that high pitch where the wise tragedian leaves off; he spoke with his eyes, his nostrils, his forehead; he writhed and grimaced so unrestrainedly that by the end of the first act he had exhausted his resources, and could but begin and go through

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the same tricks all over again. As for the others, the kindest that can be said is that their incapacity was a trifle less aggressive—probably because their rôles were more than a trifle less important. Lowell was also quoted on the playbill. "Whatever effect," he says, "Webster may produce upon us, he never leaves us indifferent." At moments when the audience should have wept they tittered, and this, too, in the fourth act, where horror crowds upon horror in the long ingenious torture to which the *Duchess* is submitted as a preparation for her own murder. However, it was in this same act that the one scene adequately impressive was presented; an impressiveness due not a little to the fact that not a word was spoken, while "ladies" in Holbein dress danced the Dance of Death with grinning skeletons, to the far tap, tap of a muffled drum, and the *Duchess*, in her white robes, sat watching, reading her doom in every step, her faithful *Cariola* crouched at her knees.

Mr. Grein and his society proposed to give aspiring actors and actresses the chance, elsewhere denied, of a hearing in parts suited to them—an admirable proposition. But to aid and abet the incompetent in the full display of their incompetency is another matter. It is just here that the directors of the Independent Theatre so far have followed such a mistaken policy. They may yet discover rare talent in new playwrights, they may revive old masterpieces; but until for the interpretation of their dramatists they find actors and actresses of fair average ability and intelligence, their performances, artistically, must be failures. Who would want to listen to Wagner ground out of a hurdy-gurdy? Who would want to look at a Titian on the canvas of the cheap copyist? I, for my part, would rather never have seen Webster's "Duchess of Malfi" on the stage than to have allowed the sad parody presented on the boards of the Opéra Comique on Friday last. N. N.

THE UNITED STATES AT THE HISTORICO-AMERICAN EXPOSITION.

MADRID, October 19, 1892.

THE courtesy shown to your correspondent by Admiral Luce, Prof. Wilson, Mr. Walter Hough, and Mr. Culin has enabled him to take stock in a leisurely manner of the various exhibits of the United States delegation. It may be well to state that the designation of "Americans" is, in Spain, at the present time, reserved for persons coming from the South American Republics. You come under the denomination of English, Yankees, or people from the United States. Hence the word American has not been used in the first sentence. To do the Spanish Americans justice, they look upon Spain as a country behind the age.

The republican simplicity which distinguishes your Government, if not your people, has perforce been cast aside in the decoration of the various rooms or courts. The Spaniards insisted upon this, and a Spanish artist has been intrusted with the duty of giving effect to the wishes of the administration of the Exhibition. A good deal of the ornamentation consists in the tasteful arrangements of flags. Excepting the small exhibit from Sweden, over which Baron Nordenskjöld presides, the United States section seems the most advanced of all—indeed, is almost complete. This is due, no doubt, to the good organization of the delegation, who work under all the disadvantages inseparable from their surroundings. For certain things, local assistance must be obtained; and then——! I accompanied Mr. Culin to a printing-office, whither he went to get some labels for marking the exhibits, and was edified by his use of strong language when he was disappointed by not getting delivery of them. As the Secretary of the delegation spoke in English, the Spaniard did not understand what was said, but he could not have failed to understand that Mr. Culin was angry. The incident is a trivial one, but it is an instance of the worries which your representatives have to suffer. As an outsider, I should gladly bear testimony to the enthusiasm with which your representation is being carried out here. Let me give you an instance. Between four and five this afternoon Mr. Bikélas, the distinguished Greek author, was in one of your courts, and apologized for asking Prof. Wilson for an explanation of some exhibit. The Professor's answer was something like this: "Our Government has gone to great expense to collect and send these things here, and they are here to be explained," and then he proceeded to go *con amore* into a plenteous description of the matter. Now, I had entered the U. S. A. section soon after nine A. M. with Mr. Culin, and had found Prof. Wilson at work there. Later in the day, I had the privilege of joining Dr. Hamy, the Director of the Trocadéro at Paris, and his friend, Prof. Henri Cordier, when, for about two hours, the Professor entertained them with a flow of instructive and scientific talk about the contents of his cases of prehistoric implements, and upon other kindred matters. Between that *conversazione* and the Bikélas incident, other inquiries had been disposed of. Meanwhile, the business of arrangement and administration had received attention.

As Dr. Hamy is not only a Vice-President of the Geographical Society of Paris and a member of the French Institute, but also a distinguished ethnologist, it cannot but be satisfactory to know that he evinced the keenest interest in Prof. Wilson's scientific talk (carried on in French, by the way), and afterwards informed your correspondent that he found the United States ethnological exhibit very interesting. Even though one may be no scientist, it is a great pleasure to observe how these savants glow with fervor as they sharpen their wits one against the other, as when Mr. Culin and Prof. Rein of Bonn made acquaintance. The climax came when Prof. Rein received from his younger confrère an acknowledgment of the latter's indebtedness to the former's famous work upon the Chinese.

The show of prehistoric implements made by the United States may not, perhaps, be so large as that of one or two of the Latin republics, but arrangement of the exhibits for scientific inquiry cannot be better illustrated than in the cases under the charge of Prof. Wilson and Mr. Culin, while Mr. Hough's exhibits pertaining to Indian life within the historic period cannot be surpassed. That some of the implements are rare may be gathered from the fact that Dr. Hamy has asked to be furnished with specimens.

There is a Linguistic Chart of North America (stopping short at Mexico), which has been prepared by the Bureau of Ethnology. It shows very distinctly, by coloring, the distribution of twenty-nine different stocks, speaking so many different languages, at a time when Europeans first made acquaintance with the "aboriginals," as Sir Walter Raleigh used to call them. To philologists this cannot but be of the highest interest, and it is well that it should be the intention to publish this chart. Another valuable exhibit is an Archæological Map of North America. It shows village sites, mounds, groups of mounds, effigy mounds, groups of effigy mounds, burial mounds, mounds with single-stone graves, mounds with stone graves, single graves or single burials, cemeteries, stone graves, stone grave-cemeteries, ossuaries, enclosures with interior mounds, enclosures with exterior mounds, excavations, canals, flint mines, soapstone mines, mica mines, refuse heaps, shell heaps, petroglyphs, groups of petroglyphs, caches, cairns, undefined antiquities, groups of villages, cavate lodges, villages of cliff lodges, inhabited stone villages (pueblo), and varieties undetermined. An ordinary map of the United States has been used, and the distribution, as set forth above, has been denoted by special marks. This valuable chart also is to be published.

There is an admirable exhibit by the Archæological Department of the University of Pennsylvania which Mr. Culin explains to visitors with the keenest enthusiasm. I was much interested in finding that he shared the opinion of Mr. im Thurn of British Guiana, that the rudely chipped implements represent an unfinished stage of manufacture, rather than a stage of civilization. To an unscientific observer like your correspondent, the degree appears to be in the process of manufacture rather than in the state of culture. The specimens of stones, apparently rejected in the operation of manufacture, are each characterized by a hump which appears to have been formed by maladroit flaking or by defect in the stone itself. At all events, this hump proved an obstacle to further shaping of the stones into the ordinary forms. The exhibit of the Bureau of Ethnology at Washington is displayed in a manner that could not but be pleasing to that ardent archæologist, Mr. Holmes, with whose name the collection is identified.

By pictures, engravings, by life-size figures, and by exhibits of articles of their every-day life, the Indians of the United States get a very considerable share of notice. In fact, the Exposition offers a splendid opportunity to ethnologists and to archæologists, who will find, in the various exhibits from North and South America, a collection not in any way to be approached by that of any single museum in the world. Ethnology—in its archæological aspect more particularly—more than anything, is the distinctive feature of the general exhibition in the lower part, as distinguished from that other special exhibition, of an almost purely Spanish character, which is to be found in the upper part of the Exposition building and is particularized as the Historico-European Exhibition. The exhibit of the Hemenway Expedition, made by Mr. Fewkes of Boston, is in itself a superb display of the culture of the southwestern tribes, principally of the Moqui Indians of the United States. It is, in fact, an ethnological museum in itself. The famous Morton collection of crania shows skulls of forty-four different tribes in the United States of America. Literature bearing upon all these subjects is also displayed, more especially in the valuable Smithsonian publications.

A collection of models of Mint medals is one of the exhibits. Here may be seen effigies of Presidents of the United States, of naval and military worthies, and of Directors of the Mint. For your correspondent the reproduction of the medal struck in honor of the capture of the *Peacock*, by Capt. James Lawrence of the *Hornet*, afterwards of the *Chesapeake*, had a special and mournful interest.

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The model is numbered 36. The original gold medal was awarded by Act of Congress on the 11th of January, 1814, to the nearest male relative of Capt. James Lawrence, "for gallantry and good conduct of that officer in the conflict between the United States sloop-of-war *Hornet* and the British vessel of war *Peacock* on February 24, 1813. A silver medal of same design was awarded to each commissioned officer of the *Hornet*." Lawrence, a brave among the brave, deserved all that was done for him and for his memory. The fight took place off the coast of what is now British Guiana. It was short and sharp. Capt. Peake, who commanded the *Peacock*, brave and true, having done his duty, fell early in the battle. His body was wrapped in the Union Jack, and went down as the ship sank beneath the muddy waters that lave those shores. A medal in honor of Capt. Henley must have a special interest for his relative, Admiral Luce.

Among the coins shown are two facsimiles of New England pennies. A facsimile of a Somers Island, or Bermuda, shilling is described in Spanish as *Primera Moneda Americana*. The effigy of the hog upon this coin was, no doubt, a mark of the gratitude of the early 'Mudians to a beast that had given them "store of flesh," without which they had wanted animal food. There is a Massachusetts shilling of 1652; a bronze quarter penny of "Mark Newby," of 1681; two facsimiles of Elephant tokens of Carolina, and two similar tokens of New England of 1694; and a Rose penny of 1722. One of the famous, or infamous, Woods's quarter-pennies, of 1723, described as "acuñada en Inglaterra para Irlanda y América," not only recalls the witty Dean of St. Patrick's, but the not generally known fact that it was at one time seriously contemplated to make Dean Swift Bishop of Virginia. There are three facsimiles of a Connecticut token of 1737; then a token *Voce Populi* of 1760; a cent of the State of Vermont, 1785, and others of 1786, 1787, and 1788. Half-cents of Massachusetts of 1787, and cents of the same State of 1787 and 1788, can be seen here, and cents of New Jersey of 1786 and 1787. In cent pieces of 1787 are shown specimens of the first money used by the Government of the United States. Examples are shown of many other coins of more modern date. Besides the coins, there is a capital collection of paper money issued from time to time in the United States. This exhibit comes in part from the National Museum at Washington and in part from the Numismatic and Antiquarian Society of Philadelphia, and is so admirably displayed that persons curious in questions of paper currency will find the examination of the series a very easy matter. The series embraces issues from 1756 down to our own day. To the historical student the most interesting examples will be those of the Revolutionary era, of which there are a number; some issued by individual States, others by resolutions of the Continental Congress. The rage of the collector has been painfully illustrated here. Some one has broken the glass of one of the cases in which these exhibits are displayed, and has stolen a note from it. Specimens are shown of Treasury notes and bonds and of postage stamps and post-cards. A feature in the exhibit is a collection of the old State banks' notes, which should be especially interesting to the financiers of Argentina. An ample collection of literature upon numismatic and kindred subjects is well displayed.

A bear from the Rocky Mountains and other specimens of the fauna of the United States are shown, and a circular slab cut from a tree which must have been a sapling in the Mississippi Valley when Columbus discovered the New World. Prof. Wilson has formed this opinion of its age from the 420 rings which go to make the bulk.

Although not so fortunate as to find an opportunity of making the personal acquaintance of Mr. Curtis, I have learned that he is very much the right man in the right place. In the two rooms under his immediate charge are hung numerous portraits and photographs and engravings of buildings and places in the New World. Of these the most important are the portraits of Columbus, numbering nearly seventy in all, mostly copies. On my expressing the opinion that these portraits might have been arranged on some plan as to the age of Columbus at the time they were taken, I was informed that Mr. Curtis had hung them systematically, but that the irrepressible Spanish artist—our friend the decorator—had insisted upon rearranging the portraits after his own fashion, which seems to be the highly scientific system of hanging them according to their sizes.

As regards the allotting of space, the Dons have treated the United States very handsomely. You have no less than six compartments, all but one being large, and one being one of the largest of the salons. The smallest one, in which is a model of the cruiser *Columbia*, is to be given up for the use of Queen Christina, as her reception-room. A German lady, the wife of a distinguished ethnologist, and herself very accomplished, volunteered to me the opinion that the United States exhibition was "the best" at the Historico-American Exposition. While sharing this opinion at the present time, it may be well to point out that the Mexican courts promise to make a very grand show in matters of historic interest by reproductions of temples, images, and other famous things. The facsimile of a sacrificial stone which greets one in the entrance court is blood-curdling enough. It was on such a stone, you will remember, that Prescott tells us one of the Guzmans was done to death after he had been taken prisoner. D. D.

CRIME AND POLITICS IN ITALY.

ITALY, October 23, 1892.

Now that the pending elections occupy the press and the public, there is a truce in the sensational articles on crime in Sicily, brigandage in Sicily, Maffia, etc., and one can handle the subject without contributing to the unjust and ungenerous attempt to brand more than three millions of islanders as criminals of the worst species, or as aiders and abettors of crime and criminals. I have read with unremitting interest the *Nation's* articles and paragraphs on the switchmen's strike, the tyranny of labor, etc., and all confirm the old proverb, "Tutto il paese è mondo." Sicily, owing to the peculiar institutions of the Bourbons, was, for a long time after the unity of Italy was an accomplished fact, infested with vagabonds and criminals of the worst species. After the suppression of successive revolutions, the Bourbon authorities let loose the denizens of the prisons and the galleys, enrolling them often as a police force and using them as spies on the patriots. When the last successful revolution was initiated, many of these went over to the revolutionists, enrolled themselves in the *squadri*, and fought manfully. Garibaldi, aware of their character, disbanded the *squadri* and sent them home. Then followed years of anarchy and disorder, when the Piedmontese Government, bent on rooting out the influence of Garibaldi in the island, reinstated many of the Bourbon agents and enforced the law of conscription with unwise rigor. The priests, who had assisted the patriots during the revolution, turned against the national Government when they found that the law on ecclesiastical property was to be applied to the island. They instigated the conscripts against the levy, hid them in the mountains, and in 1866 headed the rabble who invaded and pillaged Palermo, which for several weeks after was kept in a state of siege. This state of things, and the special facilities afforded by the want of roads and railroads to malefactors to hide themselves in the mountains and caves, kept the island in continual disorder and confusion. Exceptional laws were the order of the day; the civil and military authority was often vested in the same person. Arrests were numerous, the prisons and galleys overflowing, but the chiefs of the malefactors were left at large and often held high place.

In 1876 the Moderate party was superseded by the Liberals, and the first care of the new Government was to restore order to Sicily. No exceptional powers were asked for, but resolute men were sent as prefects and heads of police, enjoined to apply the common law without distinction of person or rank. The effects were soon seen and felt; the malefactors were arrested, the population gladly assisting the authorities. Hitherto they had unwillingly submitted to the extortions of blackmail, to the presence of malefactors on their estates, fearing their vengeance as long as there was no strong hand to put them down. Now they brought to the authorities all the letters of *ricatto* (extortion), informed them where the malefactors were hidden, and often aided in person in their arrest. The law of conscription was no longer evaded, the law enacting the performance of the civil contract of marriage was obeyed, and Sicily ceased to be the byword of nations. Roads and railroads were made, schools opened, and for some time order reigned in Sicily.

But it is not easy to uproot habits and customs; and while crime decreased and criminals were no longer left at large, the old leaven of evil pervaded and still pervades the masses. One of the defects of the Italian system of penalties is that of enforced domicile in the islands of the Mediterranean (*domicilio coatto*), which condemns men who have committed a series of misdemeanors to a period of exile from their homes for not more than five years. At the end of the term they may return, are subjected to police surveillance for another fixed period, and then left at large. The term of their enforced domicile generally ends by leaving the delinquent a worse criminal than at the commencement. He is left at large among his fellow-criminals on the island, is not compelled to work, receives half a lira (ten cents) per day, with the sole obligation to return to his quarters at a given hour at night. This system is not calculated to reform any individual who has a tendency to evil. On the contrary, most of the *coatti* arrange and combine fresh crimes to be perpetrated on their return to their homes. The idleness, often compulsory, as there is little or no work on the islands, has unfitted them for a life of toil; hence they but seek for an opportunity to live by crime and violence, and most of the crimes committed of late years in Sicily are traced back to returned *coatti*. Another error in the system is the employment of men in the various departments of police who have no authority, who have no character, and who

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too often are accomplices of the evildoers. In Sicily this defect, common to the whole of Italy, has been aggravated by the existence of a special corps of mounted militia, whose business it was to scour the country and keep order in the rural districts. This corps had too much resemblance to the old *compagni d'arme*, later called *militi a cavallo*, who were, in short, the *bravi* of the old barons, maintained by them to defend their persons and property, and as often as not to attack those of their neighbors. Of these the Bourbons availed themselves freely for their own purposes. A corps with the same name, mounted militia, was formed by the Italian Government, and opinions differ as to their probity and utility. In Sicily the people seem unanimous in denouncing them as untrustworthy, and, if not aiders of the malefactors, at least of very little use in detecting and bringing them to justice.

In 1889 Crispi, Minister of the Interior, devoted his attention to the state of public security in Sicily, and, convinced that the mounted militia was in part corrupt and totally inefficient, decided on its abolition. Meanwhile, he authorized the Commander-in-Chief of the Royal Carbineers to select 600 Sicilian carbineers from the corps, with the intention of distributing them over the seven provinces of the island. He deemed that it was necessary that all should be Sicilians, because of the extreme difficulty for individuals of the other provinces to penetrate into the mountain districts, and, ignorant of the various dialects, of the manners and customs of the peasants and miners and their relations with the proprietors, to act as guardians of the public peace. Meanwhile, Crispi was defeated, and the Rudini-Nicotera Ministry succeeded. Nicotera, approving the decision of his predecessor, abolished the *militi a cavallo*, and was organizing a new corps not only of carbineers, but of a select police, when he too was defeated, and the Giolitti Cabinet took his place without carrying out his design. Malefactors in general took advantage of the disorganization; armed aggressions in the various provinces, and especially in those of Palermo, Catania, and Messina, became frequent. Letters demanding blackmail were addressed to proprietors and wealthy citizens; three glaring seizures occurred within a brief space of time.

The first was that of Cav. Francesco Billotti, a proprietor of Castrogiovanni in the Province of Caltanisetta. On the 3d of August he was sleeping in the open, on the threshing-floor of his father's farm, with a peasant and his two sons. The peasant was awakened by a blow on his head and saw four armed men, who went up to his master, battered his head with the carbine by his side, and made both mount on mule-back. Blindfold, they were carried through several districts, then confined in a cave and barely fed. The Cav. Billotti was delirious after a few days; nevertheless, the brigands managed to make him write to his family and ask 50,000 lire for his liberation. This was a sum impossible for the family to raise; 4,000 lire, so the peasant reported, was all that they could put together. Make it five, said the brigands, and he returned. Meanwhile, the authorities demanded that the peasant should be given up to them, and with him as guide they tracked the path to the cave, where poor Billotti was found assassinated and burnt so entirely that his ashes were carried back in a handkerchief. The authorities and the population, the carbineers and the country police, went to work with a vengeance, and all the assassins were discovered and seized; one was a Calabrian, the others of Calascibetta, one only of Castrogiovanni. Here there were no *manutengoli* (aiders and abettors), no attempt on the part of any to hide or aid the assassins to escape. The assassination seems to have been perpetrated because the wounded man was too far gone to be kept alive until the ransom should arrive. Several of the culprits are returned *coatti*.

In the same month, August 22, another audacious extortion was effected. Baron Antonio Spidaliere, whose wines and brandy are among the most renowned in Sicily, having purchased a new farm, went to take possession, and spent the night with his son at the house of his wife's stepmother, the Baroness Ciacco. In the morning at seven, sending on four of his forest-guards, and leaving his son with the Baroness, he followed on horseback with other three of his dependents. At a short distance from the house armed men bade him halt, seized and bound him and his three followers as they had already seized the *campieri* who preceded him. The captors of the latter returned to the house of the Baroness with a letter demanding 50,000 lire. The young son of Baron Spidaliere aimed at them from a window, but meanwhile arrived the second relay with the captured Baron. The Baroness threw them the 50,000 from the window, but this no longer contented them. They entered with their prisoner and compelled the Baroness to conduct them over the house. When they had despoiled her of another 110,000 lire, they expressed their regret for the "inconvenience" caused, and returned to the Baron his watch, chain, and purse. This audacious aggression was the work of a band of malefactors whose headquarters were the forest of S. Mauro on the borders of the province of Catania. A dependent of the Baroness kept them informed of the movements of the family; the parish priest seems to have connived at their plot. In a short space of time the band was arrested, and its members are now in durance vile.

At the end of the same month the third aggression was enacted. One Sangiorgio of the province of Trapani was seized, bound to a mule, and carried off. The family paid a large sum for his release, but he did not return. The police and the carbineers patrolled the district, and one day during a village festival a peasant who was among the crowd excited their suspicion; he was arrested, and on his person was found a large sum of money. He at once confessed and revealed his accomplices. The carbineers went to the cave, and there found the poor Sangiorgio half dead of hunger and fright, expecting to be murdered every moment. The malefactors were arrested and are now awaiting their trial.

These are the worst cases and there is nothing uncommon in the stories. The Government has now sent a relay of police, or carbineers, and of the much desired bersaglieri. No more is heard of "brigandage in Sicily." But what will be the fate of the malefactors—will they be tried and condemned, or merely sent to *domicilio coatto*?

One of the characteristic crimes of Sicily is the theft of animals (*l'abigeato*), recalling the *razzie* of the Arabs and the rustlers of America. In these exploits, though there are no special associations of *abigeatori*, it is evident that the thief must have accomplices. The old penal code of Italy was very severe on this theft: the penalty for stealing *one* solitary horse, mule, or horned beast, was imprisonment for not more than three years; but if the beast was stolen from a herd or from the stable, the penalty was to be not less than seven years, and might extend even to the galleys for a longer period. By the new code the penalty may not exceed six years of imprisonment. No crime is more difficult of detection. Animals in Sicily live in the open except during the winter months; each herd has its special mark and so has each animal. Sometimes a number of proprietors hire a waste for pasturage, but each man knows his own animal, and all pay in common one or more herdsmen. Rarely are the animals of a large landed proprietor stolen, he having his special *campieri*, who are responsible, and who would make the thief pay heavily for the insult more than the loss of the cattle. It is the poor owner of a few acres of land and perhaps three or four mules or cattle, who is generally the victim. The thief in large wastes where the cattle of various proprietors are assembled, must have some accomplice, as, even if there are 100, all answer to their special names—"like Christians," say the peasants—and answer only to the voice they know. Then wild dogs are kept who would tear an intruder to pieces. Consequently, one of the herdsmen must be an accomplice. He calls the beast and leaves it outside the boundary, the thief comes early at night, drives off the animal, mounting it if it be a mule or horse, and rides to some distant spot, where he sells or kills it in a cavern, destroying the mark and cutting it up to sell to the various butchers in the district. When the owner of the missing animal is warned of his loss, he notifies the police, but takes care never to accuse any one. Rarely are the lost animals found, unless the proprietor is very powerful, when often the beast is returned at night as it was taken. Even this crime might be repressed if trouble were taken to alter the system of marks, and the remedy was long ago suggested by a well-known ex-member of the police, Giuseppe Alongi. But no synthetic system for the prevention, discovery, and repression of crime has yet been attempted in Italy.

The reformation of criminals once convicted has rallied to the task some of the finest intellects and noblest hearts of the peninsula. The penal establishments for women at Messina, that for men at Procida, are simply magnificent, perfect in all their arrangements. The wards are airy, healthy, the due number of cubic feet are assigned to each criminal. The food is good though scant; but as work is provided, a portion of the proceeds is given to the worker, and, a restaurant being at hand, he can supplement the prison fare with all sorts of delicacies—beefsteaks, cutlets, fried, roast, or boiled meat, and a certain quantity of wine. Never did I realize the cruel truth of Carlyle's "model prisons" as during my last visit to Procida. The absurdity of the system in Italy is aggravated by the circumstance that not only is no attention paid to the dwellings of the honest poor, who live in caves in parts of Sicily still, and in kennels and hovels unfit for beasts in most of the cities, while the proprietors exact enormous rents and never give a brush of whitewash or mend a tumbling roof, but the prisons where the accused are taken as soon as arrested are something that baffles description. The prisons of Naples and of some parts of Sicily are as bad as the Black Hole of Calcutta. No person can breathe unless he has got accustomed to the stench, the filth, the stifling atmosphere. Here old criminals, condemned and awaiting their second, third, or fourth trial, are huddled together with per-

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haps a young lad of decent parents who has been taken up because his "weights or measures" have not the right mark, or because he has been at a *sciarra* (a scuffle), and here he may remain long enough to learn all the details of crime and infamy known to his comrades. These are the plain truths, and no one can gainsay them.

The present Ministry have published a programme for the restoration of the finances of the country, and if they should succeed in this, a great step would be made towards the decrease of misery, one of the great factors of crime. But the hour of social awakening has not yet dawned for Italy. The people are remembered during the elections because many of them have the vote. The Socialists promise all sorts of benefits if they should get a seat in Parliament, but such as have hitherto obtained one have done nothing—nay, they vigorously opposed many of the propositions of Crispi, who, belonging to the old school, considers that the new country can never become prosperous until all her cities are partakers in the benefits of freedom. Meanwhile the Island of Sicily has returned to its normal state. Giolitti has pledged himself *not* to interfere with the elections, to dissolve no municipal councils, to remove no prefects, until the elections are over. If he keeps his word, a great gain will ensue, for political corruption goes hand in hand with crime of every species. This is the case especially in Sicily, where malefactors have often been let alone by special orders from the central Government because they were known to dispose of a certain number of votes in favor of the said Government.

One question is now especially mooted, and that is the payment of the Deputies. Some of the best members of Parliament have refused to stand, declaring themselves incapable of living in Rome. One of these is the late editor of the *Isola*, one of the best newspapers in Sicily, nay, in all Italy—Napoleon Colaiani, a celebrated writer on social questions. His pamphlets on 'Political Corruption' and 'Crime in Sicily' are text-books for students of these questions. But his newspaper has failed and he retires into private life. So with three other members of the Left. The workmen of Milan maintain their fellow-workman, Maffi, but I know of no other instance where the political workman is deemed worthy of his hire. How far the payment of Deputies will further political morality, it is difficult to say. Crispi has always strongly advocated this measure. J. W. M.

Correspondence.

THE GUARANTEES FOR STATE BANKS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Apropos of the much-discussed repeal of the 10 per cent. tax on State banknotes, I should like to offer a little testimony that was obtained the other day from a conversation with a Southern gentleman living near Columbia, Tenn. This city had one national and two State banks a year or so ago, when a period of depression, followed by a tight money market, brought on a crisis which resulted in the failure of the two State banks. An investigation of their affairs revealed a wretched condition indeed. The smaller bank, with a capital of $50,000, had more than $100,000 overdrafts; and the larger one, with $100,000 capital, had more than $200,000. The most reckless banking in the East can conceive nothing like this — overdrafts large enough to wipe out both the stock and the 100 per cent. assessment, with no account taken of worthless notes and depreciated collateral, the usual cause of bank failures! One may well be pardoned for crying out lest he be asked to take the currency of such banks.

But where were the examiners? You may well ask the question, for Tennessee has such officers, and I understand that they are expected to make investigations at least yearly. How well they do their duty you may infer when I tell you that one of these banks, so it transpired, had not been examined for ten years. Yet the neglect was doubtless in accord with the business methods of a community that not only tolerates but encourages such a system. For it is well known that the South and West are hostile to the national banks. The cause ordinarily assigned for the prejudice—exceptional profits on the circulation—has been removed by the premium on United States bonds. Where money loans at 5 per cent., the bank that invests $100,000 in Government fours for the purpose of issuing notes, finds the privilege worth $400 per annum; where money loans at 6 per cent., the profit is $85 per annum; where it is worth 7 per cent., the profit turns to a loss of $230; and so on, the loss increasing as the clamor against the system increases.

Has, then, the prejudice no foundation? It must have, and I believe it is found in the following answer of a Southern gentleman when asked for his explanation: "Go to Mr. A. (President of a national bank), and the first thing he inquires is, 'What collateral have you got?' Go to Mr. B. (President of a State bank), and he simply says that he shall expect 12 per cent." The national banker knows that he must be prepared for four Comptroller's calls and a searching examination each year. The State banker feels no such restraint. Undoubtedly an increased currency would be a stimulus to the South and West, but at the same time it might be made a means for introducing conservative business methods, by wisely conditioning the repeal of the tax. At any rate, too great care cannot be taken lest it be so inadequately secured as to invite still more reckless banking.

Richard W. Nutter.

Boston, October 31, 1892.

PORTRAITS IN THE *UNIVERSITY MAGAZINE*.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As one of the men whose pictures appear in a recent issue of the *University Magazine*, I wish to correct certain inferences that might be drawn from an article in the *Nation* of November 3, entitled "Fame in the *University Magazine*." While in no way championing the magazine, I, for one, take exception to your correspondent's statement, "I am struck with the profit there is in the publication of about thirty-six photographs at $100 per head."

The facts in my own case are as follows: I was informed that I was one of six selected to represent '76 among Princeton Alumni appearing in the *University Magazine*, that it was necessary to forward a photograph and to pay *ten* dollars for the expense of having it transferred. This did not seem to me an unjust request, and, feeling honored by the selection, as I still feel, I forwarded the amount. Nothing was ever said about copies, except that I asked them to send me one, which they did. I gave no bonus for "fame," and am at a loss to know why "A. B." was charged so heavily unless his picture presented insuperable obstacles.

Yours truly, Robt. W. Johnson.

Baltimore, November 4, 1892.

THE CULTIVATION OF TREES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: May I call the attention of your readers to the following paragraph taken from the London *Spectator* of October 22?

"The statistics connected with British agriculture show that the landlords are by no means the helpless, 'played-out' class they are often represented, and that they are meeting the fall in the price of wheat as business men ought to meet it—by turning their land to other uses than corn-growing. This has been shown year after year by the increasing amounts of land laid down to pasturage. A recent return shows another form of landlord activity. Suitable land is constantly being planted, and the acreage under woodland, which in most civilized countries is diminishing, is increasing in England. Ten years ago, the woodland surface of Great Britain was computed at 2,458,000 acres. By the year 1888, the acreage thus occupied had risen to 2,561,000 acres, and the measurements taken in 1891 show a further advance to 2,695,000 acres. Of the 134,000 acres thus added to the approximate woodland area of Great Britain, 96,000 acres are assigned to England, 31,000 to Scotland, and 7,000 acres to Wales. Hampshire heads the list, as the best planted county in England, with 122,574 acres of wood; Sussex has 122,073 acres, and Surrey and Kent come next. These four counties have, indeed, twenty-five per cent. of the English woodlands, and of their entire surface eleven per cent. is wood. In Scotland, the most wooded county is Inverness-shire, with 169,000 acres."

If it is possible in England to plant trees as a crop and derive profit from their growth, why may not some of the deserted farms in New England be made profitable in the same way? Such farmers as I have talked with value their woodland at a high rate, but they never replant with trees the acres they have once cleared. Each year new railroads are built in the mountain regions of New Hampshire for the sake of bringing the lumber of its beautiful wooded steeps to market. There seems to be plenty of capital and of energy for the destruction of the forests nature has provided for us; is it Utopian to think that if part of the energy and capital were expended in replanting some of the deserted farms, the return for the capital might be as great here as it is in England?—Very sincerely,

M. N. S.

Cambridge, Mass., November 4, 1892.

Notes.

Charles Scribner's Sons have nearly ready the 'Life and Letters of Washington Allston'; 'French Art,' by W. C. Brownell; 'Rowen: "Second Crop" Songs,' by H. C. Bunner; and 'With Trumpet and Drum,' verses for children by Eugene Field.

Dodd, Mead & Co.'s forthcoming publications include several translations from the French, as, 'The Memoirs of Madame de Staal-de Launay,' with forty-one etchings by Lalauze; Jean de la Brète's 'My Uncle and My Curé'; and Maxime de la Rocheterie's 'History of Marie Antoinette'; one from the Italian, 'The Poems of Giosuè Carducci,' by Frank Sewall; reprints relating to the stage, as, 'The Dramatic Essays of Charles Lamb,' edited by Brander Matthews, and 'The School for Scandal,' illustrated by Frank M. Gregory; and the following miscellany: 'The Ballad of Beau Brocade, and Other Poems,' by Austin

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Dobson, together with 'Eighteenth Century Vignettes,' by the same writer; 'Beauty of Form and Grace of Vesture,' by Frances Mary Steele and Elizabeth L. S. Adams; and the 'Universal Atlas,' including county and railroad maps of the United States.

'Seen from the Saddle' is the title of a volume of out-door sketches, by Isa Carrington Cabell, which Harper & Bros. will bring out some time this fall.

The Centenary Edition of Shelley's Complete Works, edited in four volumes with a life by Prof. George E. Woodberry, is in the press of Houghton, Mifflin & Co., as are also Prof. Lanciani's 'Pagan and Christian Rome,' 'Italy from the Congress of Vienna, 1814, to the Fall of Venice, 1849,' by William R. Thayer (in two volumes), and 'The Nature and Elements of Poetry,' by Edmund C. Stedman.

'Man in Art,' by Philip Gilbert Hamerton; 'The Lost Atlantis, and Other Ethnographic Studies,' by Sir Daniel Wilson; and 'The Last Touches, and Other Stories,' by Mrs. William Kingdon Clifford, will be published directly by Macmillan & Co.

The Cupples Co., Boston, are about to bring out 'Heinrich Heine: His Wit, Wisdom, Poetry,' edited by Newell Dunbar.

Lee & Shepard will issue 'A Woman's Philosophy of Love,' by Mrs. Caroline F. Corbin.

William Doxey, San Francisco, announces 'Petrarch, and Other Essays,' by the late Judge T. H. Rearden; 'The Sleeping Princess California,' a poem by Alice Edwards Pratt, with illustrations of California scenery and flowers; and 'At the Gates of Light, and Other Poems,' by Mrs. Amie S. Page.

Funk & Wagnalls promise an important work on 'Criminology,' by Dr. Arthur MacDonald, with an introduction by Prof. Cesare Lombroso and a very extensive bibliography.

An illustrated popular account of six famous journeys of recent times, 'Leaders into Unknown Lands,' will be issued by Thomas Whittaker.

Prof. Robert Baird of Northwestern University has prepared a 'Greek-English Word-list,' containing nearly one thousand of the commonest Greek words, mastery of which will insure a most valuable nucleus for the student's vocabulary. It will have the imprint of Ginn & Co.

Mr. F. B. Sanborn and Dr. W. T. Harris are engaged upon a biography of the late A. Bronson Alcott.

A memorial volume from the papers of the late James R. Osgood is being compiled by Mrs. A. V. S. Anthony.

The following are some English announcements: a new volume by Mr. W. S. Lilly, to be called 'The Great Enigma' (Murray), and dealing with agnosticism and the Christian synthesis—subjects upon which Mr. Lilly has written a good deal; a collection of Mr. Henry Irving's 'Addresses' (Heinemann), with a frontispiece portrait of Mr. Irving by Whistler; 'The Unseen Foundations of Society: An Examination of the Fallacies and Failures of Economic Science due to Neglected Elements,' by the Duke of Argyll, with especial attention to the theory of rent, and of the wages fund; a 'History of India,' from the earliest times down to the present day, by H. G. Keene, intended mainly for the use of students, and to be published in two volumes by W. H. Allen & Co.; and a 'Life of Gavarni,' the French caricaturist, by Frank T. Marzials, to be published by Sampson Low, Marston & Co.

Old favorites in a new dress still press upon us. Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's 'In the Levant' has seemed to his publishers (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) to afford opportunity for the kind of illustration by photogravure exemplified in their holiday editions of Hawthorne's 'Our Old Home' and 'Marble Faun.' They have accordingly reproduced it in two handsome volumes of which the letter-press is really beyond the need of embellishment. There is a portrait of the author, and twenty-four plates of scenery and architecture, the least good being the panoramic. The binding is in red and green. From Harper & Bros. come Curtis's 'Prue and I' and Henry James's 'Daisy Miller,' the one in an elegant pea-green cover, the other in white and green stripes which somewhat obscure the gilt lettering. Mr. Albert Edward Sterner has furnished the designs for Mr. Curtis's idyll, and they are to be praised for their appropriateness and their decorative feeling; but he is properly a pen-and-ink artist, and his washed drawings compare unfavorably with the majority of his work. If we yield to the French fashion of breaking the squareness of the page by planting vignettes to one side, in the margin, in the corner, we must concede that 'Prue and I' is a very successful bit of typography, for the print is clear and beautiful. Mr. Harry McVickar, on the other hand, seems to us to have overdone the illustrations to 'Daisy Miller,' employing all the eccentricities just noted, with some peculiar to himself. His designs are too formal to be decorative as they stand, and they are not, taken together, equal to Mr. Sterner's. Finally, the criterion "Cherchez la femme" applies here, and Mr. McVickar has given us everything but the heroine. She turns her back to us in the colored frontispiece, and rightly, for her character is out of reach of the artist's imagination.

The first volume of the Dryburgh Edition of the Waverley Novels has been issued by Macmillan & Co., and ushers in a series of twenty-five. A popular sale is contemplated, and the price is really low for the solid and elegant workmanship. The print is generous and the size (octavo) dignified. The text followed is that of Scott's last revision, and Dr. Laing's notes are retained. Each volume contains an index and a glossary, and each will be illustrated by a different hand if we can base an inference on the list of artists given for fifteen of them. Mr. Charles Green's designs for 'Waverley,' the initial volume, are nine in number, and at their best are excellent, though his limitations are obvious. Without comparing the Dryburgh with the multitude of other editions, we can commend it unreservedly.

'Play in Provence,' by Joseph and Elizabeth Pennell, reprinted by the Century Co. from the *Century Magazine*, makes a charming little volume, prettily bound and clearly and elegantly printed on the highly glazed paper which is necessary for the proper effect of the cuts. The chatty text and the clever little drawings have lost none of their pleasantness.

Three fresh volumes continue the unpretentious uniform edition of William Black's novels, bound in green cloth, which the Harpers are issuing, viz.: 'The Maid of Killeena,' 'Green Pastures and Piccadilly,' and 'Macleod of Dare.' The first-named contains also 'The Marriage of Moira Fergus.'

The 'Beauties of Nature and the Wonders of the World We Live In' (Macmillan), by Sir John Lubbock, is a charming book, alike for the interest of its varied chapters and for its exemplification of the broad sympathies of its learned author. It is certainly delightful to see that a banker, a politician, and a close observer of the ways of ants should at the same time have an extended comprehension of many other natural fields. It must be noted that Lubbock includes under his title not only the graceful forms of mountain scenery and the delicacy of flower coloring, but the arrangement of river branches, and the rudimentary teeth of cows and hind legs of whales.

'The Geographical Distribution of Disease in Great Britain,' by Alfred Haviland (London: Sonnenschein), a second edition, is an extended statement of a former thesis, of which one of the chief elements is that death from cancer increases in regions of clayey soil liable to overflow by rivers, and that it is relatively rare in limestone regions. This is based upon English records apportioned by small geographical districts and then compared with the physical features of the region. Whatever element of truth there may be in the supposed relation, the present discussion does not sufficiently consider the other possible causes of variation; and until the cases are charted according to natural geological areas, the desired demonstration can hardly be reached. The book is not compactly written; the chapters on the structure and topography of the lake region, to which the most attention is given, are very diffuse; the results gained might be presented in much smaller volume. The subject of the book is, however, one on which increasing attention must be bestowed, and for this purpose better statistics are needed. We may join Dr. Haviland in condemning the British Registrar-General for allowing returns of deaths since 1870 without distinction of sex; for this is particularly unsatisfactory in the case of diseases which affect both sexes, but which are more common in one than in the other. A later volume will deal with the valley of the Thames.

Mr. Alfred Russel Wallace contributes an essay entitled 'Land Nationalization' to the Social Science Series (London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners). After stating many shocking but often insufficiently verified cases of oppression by landlords in Ireland, Scotland, and England, and praising once more the lot of the peasant proprietor on the Continent, Mr. Wallace contends that pauperism in Great Britain can be extinguished only by vesting the title to all land in the Government, which shall offer to every member of the community a small piece of land, subject to the payment of a quitrent, and on condition that it be not sublet or mortgaged beyond a certain amount. What is to be done with paupers who cannot take their allotments, or with tenants who become unable to pay their rent, we are not told; but as the scheme is rather utopian in character, it does not make much difference. It should be said that Mr. Wallace proposes no plunder of landlords, and that if a body of peasant proprietors can yet be created in England, it will probably be in some such way as he suggests.

A new book on Egypt is by Flinders Petrie, the veteran excavator and explorer who for several years acted under the auspices of the Egypt Exploration Fund, but more recently upon private account. It is a book in a popular form, in which he recounts his 'Ten Years Digging in Egypt, 1881-1891' (Revell), refraining purposely from minute details, dates, and figures which might serve the single purpose of confusing those who have not made a special study of the subject. Those familiar with the author's larger works will find little new here; for them the present work is not intended. But it is an interesting and at times almost a thrilling tale which he tells, and calculated to furnish considerable information to the general public, or that part of it which cares more for results than for methods. The

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book contains many cuts, but some of them are so rough as to add nothing to its value.

The establishment of steamship routes from New York to the Mediterranean by both the Bremen and the Hamburg lines has brought Spain into special prominence as a winter resort for invalids and tourists. It is almost the nly European country for which there is no Baedeker, and this may be taken as a compliment to the two standard guide-books to Spain—Ford's (the best of all the Murray guides), now in its seventh edition, and O'Shea's, of which the ninth edition, edited and revised by John Lomas, is just received (London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan). Both of these books are so good that it is difficult to decide which to choose; the best way may be to buy them both. Perhaps Ford's general descriptions are the more interesting, while O'Shea has more special information for students of cathedrals. The new edition of O'Shea has more than 100 pages of general information, on forty different topics. The data seem to be fresh; but whereas the new Mediterranean lines from New York are referred to (p. 152) as well as the new railroad from Algeciras (Gibraltar) to Granada, we have found no mention of the equally important new railway which at last makes it possible to go to Gibraltar from Cadiz without taking a steamer except to cross the bay from Algeciras.

Of books of travel on Spain there is no lack, the latest addition to the list being 'Spanish Cities' (Scribners), by Charles Augustus Stoddard, author of 'Across Russia.' It is simply a journalist's record of a brief trip on the peninsula (with a chapter on Tangier), combining an unadorned description of what was seen, with free borrowing from the guide-books and other works on Spain. There are no new points of view, or new regions explored, but the average tourist will find the information thus brought together useful and entertaining. There are eighteen full-page illustrations.

Two notable literary events in Japan are (1) the completion and publication of J. H. Gubbins's 'Dictionary of Chinese-Japanese Words.' This three-volume work, clearly and beautifully printed, is indispensable to the student of contemporary Japanese, into the vocabulary of which the modern age has compelled the infusion of many thousand new terms unknown a generation ago. (2) Dr. J. C. Hepburn, the veteran medical missionary and translator, has completed his 'Bible Dictionary,' a handsome illustrated volume. Instead of being a mere translation, it is a scholarly condensation of the best cyclopædic literature with much original matter. It is in the style read by all classes. The mechanical portion of the work is wholly Japanese.

In the useful series, reprinted from *L'Art*, of "Les Artistes Célèbres" (Macmillan), M. Émil Michel takes up another of those Dutch families in which painting was pursued for several generations. This time it is the Van de Veldes whom he treats in his usual careful manner. In the same series M. F. Lhomme follows his study of Raffet by another of Raffet's master, Charlet.

We have received the prospectus of *Childhood*, "a monthly magazine of all that concerns the welfare of the child," to be launched next month under the editorial direction of Dr. George William Winterburn and Florence Hull. The publishers will be A. L. Chatterton & Co., in this city.

Mr. John P. Holland, to whom the *Cosmopolitan*'s second prize of $100 has been awarded for an essay on aerial navigation, revives the very simple mechanism, suggested by Herschel years ago, of a pair of propeller wheels rotating rapidly in opposite directions on an axis of variable inclination. Spacious aeroplanes with an upward tilt are expected to help in overcoming gravity. Quite without doubt the plan may be put into successful operation—if the machine is able to lift and support itself in the air (which it is next to certain it could not); if it is incapable of capsizing (which it might be in a quiescent atmosphere); if the aeroplanes, their supports, and guys do not snap or undergo deformation (which, at low speeds, they perhaps would not); and if a benign Providence would only provide salvation for the aviator in case of accident. The other difficulties will occur to the inventor of the machine when he comes to try it.

Instead of "What We Really Know about Mars," the Director of the Lick Observatory might better have entitled his article in the November *Forum* "Speculations concerning Mars," or something of that sort, for the general reader would not then have been led to form the opinion that we really know next to nothing about that planet. The evidence as to the meaning of apparent surface conditions on Mars is rather ramblingly reviewed, but the natural expectation that such an article would have much to say of the observations of Mars during the past summer meets with almost entire disappointment. The sturdy defence of great telescopes is excellent and timely, and will doubtless do much toward silencing further idle detraction of the work of our great instrument-makers, the Clarks, and their European rivals.

The whole number of freshmen at Oxford this year is put at 694, as against 687 last year. Of these, as given in an incomplete list in the *Oxford Magazine*, 52 are non-collegiate; Balliol and University each have 41, and Merton 36. When the non-collegiate, or unattached, students—*non adscripti*, their technical name is—first came up to Oxford about twenty-five years ago, they were few in number, and were generally referred to in conversation as the *non descripti*. They appear to be on a better footing now.

—The November *Atlantic* offers little occasion for comment. Dr. Holmes writes his farewell verses for Whittier with that combination of strength and feeling in which he is most felicitous, and adds one more memorable poem to the sheaf of personal tributes that have been characteristic of the New England literary group. The analysis of the political principles of the two parties, by an anonymous hand, is a singularly fair statement, and would hardly invite criticism from either side on the point of impartial exposition. The papers of the Venetian ambassadors afford an episode of history pleasantly narrated, and the inexhaustible topic of the higher education of women is treated, with especial reference to enlarging their studies in the direction of sociology, by Samuel W. Dike. The serials, however, are the core of the number.

—*Harper's* opens with a series of illustrations of Mecca and Medina, after photographs taken by a Moslem officer, which give the first exact visual knowledge of these closely guarded shrines that the Western world has had. Mr. Warner furnishes a running text on the illustrations, deriving his material from the travels of Burckhardt and Burton. The work of Nathaniel J. Wyeth in Oregon, at the time of the struggle for its possession, is made the subject of a special paper. Mr. Child continues to write of Paris, and Mr. Ralph of the greatness of the West. The designers of the Fair are eulogized by Mr. Millet, and the death-masks of Mr. Hutton's collection are drawn on for a third article on a gruesome topic. Miss Wilkins is, perhaps, the most prominent interest in the number, as she is now suffering the process of exploitation, though in the page that can only be described as an inserted advertisement she is obliged to spare a corner to the claims of Mr. Davis. This is the first time, we believe, that the text has permitted the intrusion of the circular letter into its pages. It is on the whole more convenient not to be obliged to bind up the advertisements with the remainder of the magazine. Between the last words of Curtis and Mr. Warner's urbane sentences in the "Study," the intrusion is so glaring a violation of good taste that it cannot be overlooked.

—*Scribner's*. "feature" for the month is a paper upon Victor Hugo, made up of extracts from notes of his conversations at Guernsey by his son. The original manuscripts of these, incredible as it seems, were discovered when his house there was renovated for new occupants, and went begging for a purchaser till some one was brave enough to give eight or ten shillings for the whole, and by so doing more than doubled his investment, selling the collection to Mr. Davey for a pound sterling or two. The notes are full, and the conversations are upon every subject; they are for the period of the five years after the *Coup d'État*. The selection here given from the mass of papers is mainly confined to anecdotes, and is, doubtless, only a foretaste of what will be published in the end. Mr. James writes of the Grand Canal, and Mr. Franklin MacVeagh shows how large a part in the expense of the Fair Chicago has undertaken, and reassures those who have entertained doubts in regard to the transportation and accommodation of visitors and to the quality of the water.

—The *Century* is more varied than its rivals of the month, but is not distinguished by any paper of greater importance than the rest. The suggestion that those who have closed the Fair on Sunday are now bound to see that that day, as one of rest, shall be put to its greatest profit, is well made, and attention is directed to ways of using the day not inconsistent with the customs and preference of our people. The Russian artist Répin, the composer Massenet, the Paris Commune and Brook Farm, scientific error in the Bible, and the traits of workingmen as seen by one of themselves, are topics which illustrate the breadth of interest in the number, of which the most valuable feature, possibly, is the series of letters between Gen. Sherman and Senator Sherman in the months before and after the outbreak of the civil war.

—Surgeon John S. Billings's colossal 'Index-Catalogue of the Library of the Surgeon-General's Office, U. S. A.,' has just been continued by a thirteenth volume which nearly takes in the remainder of the letter S from the preceding volume. It is noticeably full of outlandish names of authors, like the Russian Sutugin with which it closes. The general rubric Surgery falls to this instalment of the Catalogue, and fills 92 pages. Statistics fill 68, and there is a long and important list of vital statistics geographically arranged. A similar remark is to be made of Societies, occupying 57 pages. Of the parts of the body here comprehended, the Spine clearly gives the medical faculty the greatest occupation: it fills 95 pages, whereas the Stomach needs but 78, the Skin 64, the Spleen 20, the Sternum 4. Smallpox leads the ills (62 pages), while Strabismus

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lags behind with 8 (besides 4 given to Spectacles), and Stammering with 4. Sleep, or the want of it, calls for a matter of 9 pages. Under Sneezing we observe several works touching the formulas so widely in vogue for turning this phenomenon to good account—a 'Disquisitio philologica de ritu salutandi sternutantes' (1704), and an essay 'De ritu sternutantibus bene precandi' (1741). In the materia medica, Strychnine is at the front with 8 pages, followed by Sodium with 7. But also the Spider and the Snail claim attention, the former for the virtues of its web as a febrifuge, etc., the latter for its efficacy (*ingéré vivant*) in affections of the lungs and larynx, in the case of hernia, and as a basis of pharmaceutical preparations as late as 1840. The old doctrine of Signatures may be seen here to go at least as far back as 1608. Jonn Snart, in 1817, in his 'Thesaurus of Horror,' touching burial alive, showed "by a number of awful facts that have transpired, as well as from philosophical inquiry, the reanimating power of fresh earth in cases of syncope," etc. The Siamese twins cut a pretty figure on page 1, in a literature ranging from 1829 to 1874, and embracing many discussions of the safety of severing their famous ligament.

—There is not much psychology visible in this multitude of titles. Socrates's demon is in question when one controversialist deprecatingly asks (1864), "Socrates était-il fou?" The quite modern Suggestion (supplementary here to Hypnotism in an earlier volume) is hardly ten years old, though there is a stray title dating back to 1862, if there be no mistake in the third figure. The unpromising title of Stumps furnishes several inquiries regarding the alleged liability, in persons who have undergone amputation, to experience sensations from or about the missing members—a curious subject; *e.g.*, "De sensuum mendaciis apud eos homines quibus membrum aliquod amputatum est" (1842), etc. H. Fabricius "ab Aquapendente" (Padua, 1603) discussed the speech of animals—'De brutorum loquela.' Somnambulism yields the title, possessing a local interest, 'Devotional Somnium; or a collection of prayers and exhortations uttered by a Miss Rachael Baker, in the city of New York, in the winter of 1815, during her abstracted and unconscious state, . . . together with a view of that faculty of the human mind which is intermediate between sleeping and waking. The facts attested by the most respectable divines, physicians, and literary gentlemen, and the discourses correctly noted by clerical stenographers.' An earlier narrative or edition will be found on p. 1,000 under the head 'Surprising (The) Case of Rachael Baker' (New York, 1814), the "clerical stenographer" being Charles Mais. Henry Stubbe, who flourished 1631-76, published at Oxford in 1666 'The Miraculous Conformist: or an account of severall marvailous cures performed by the stroaking of the hands of Mr. Valentine Greatarick [Greatorex?]'—a meaning of the word *conformist* not to be found in Dr. Murray's Dictionary, we think. Another work by the same author, printed in London in 1671, was entitled 'A Bacon-face No Beauty,' and this occurrence of the term *bacon-face* antedates Dr. Murray's earliest citation for it, from Otway, 1684, though *bacon-faced* he traces to 1600 or thereabouts.

—At the Congress of Americanists held at Huelva, Spain, in the early part of October, Mr. Ed. Seler of the Ethnographical Museum in Berlin made some interesting communications about the Maya manuscripts and the actual state of their decipherings. He began by saying that formerly the students of Maya hieroglyphs had been misled by the so-called Landa Alphabet, published by Bishop Landa in the sixteenth century in his 'Relaciones de Yucatan,' a standard work for Maya history. In Germany the decipherings of the manuscripts has lately been begun in another way, viz., by comparison. Prof. Foerstemann of Dresden was the first to discover by this method the system used by the ancient Maya people in writing their numbers. Shellhaas and Seler are both working in the same fashion. Seler found out that the first sign of the three by which every deity is accompanied indicates the action in which the deity is represented; so does the second sign frequently. Moreover, in the books of 'Chilam Balam' written in the Maya language, a fine copy of which he met with in the library of Prof. Brinton, he found a description of the thirteen "ahau katun" or periods of 20x360 days, with their names, the names of their tutelary deities, and their astrological importance. The same thirteen "ahau katun" are represented in the Perez Codex (MS. Mexicain No. 2, Bibliothèque Nationale, Paris). Thus he was enabled to identify certain deities and certain hieroglyphs of the Maya manuscripts. The contents of those ancient writings are, according to Dr. Seler, chiefly astrological and chronological.

MARKHAM'S COLUMBUS.

Life of Christopher Columbus. By Clements R. Markham. London: George Philip & Son. 1892.

EVERY historian has his pitfall, and his readers soon become conscious of it. It is some personal quality, implanted by nature or derived from experience. The purely literary man turned historian bends his narrative to secure picturesqueness or to give an artistic effect, no matter what the requirements of truth. The popular writer, knowing how the common mind yearns to be led, finds all complications of fact which perplex the circumspect student to vanish before his easy decisions. The defect of Mr. Markham, proficient student as he is in all these early American subjects, is his pride in the seaman's profession, and his unwillingness to believe that unworthy qualities can be conjoined with the essential merits of a great seaman.

It is a psychological study to watch him formulate the rules for making a maritime wonder: Call your hero a "genius" and put him beyond the pale of criticism. "Assume so able a man to be correct." If there is anything, for instance, awkward for Columbus's fame in Las Casas's abridgment of the Admiral's journal, do not hold the Admiral responsible. If there is a damaging discrepancy in one of two statements, decide that the most objectionable is "a careless copy," and if there is in the other something on record to interfere with your ideal, use the politician's art and call it a "slip of the pen." If there is an obvious difficulty in the way, as in Columbus's reference in his will to a woman whom he had wronged, lighten it by calling it "some ecclesiastical obstacle." Say that no one could have managed colonists better, but do not forget yourself and say in another place that another could have done better, in allowing that Bartholomew Columbus was "better fitted to deal" with such people. Profess that "every sentence written by the illustrious Genoese is valuable to posterity," and do not forget this when you come to speak of the oath which he prescribed on the coast of Cuba, for you may find yourself forced to maintain that the Admiral was delirious when he indited so foolish a thing, and presume that "passing whims of a vivid imagination account for the wildest vagaries." If the Admiral's writing takes the form of a falsification of his log, find it "fully justified by the circumstances." If Columbus says he never again saw his wife after deserting her, decide that he meant to say "hardly ever" instead of "never." If your hero seized poor Indians, say that he "detained" them; but when others do the same thing, say that the poor creatures were "kidnapped" or carried off "by force." Say that Columbus only forced into slavery prisoners of war, and forget that he outlined such a subjection for the Lucayans the moment he laid eye on them, as the first letter he wrote of his discovery shows.

It is impossible to suppose that a scholar of Mr. Markham's ripeness could have knowingly committed himself to such a rehabilitating process, and we must account for it solely by his being overmastered by his admiration for the magnates of a calling which he would have adorned had he remained in it. This overpowering ideal makes him forget what he must know, as when he says that Columbus reached Lisbon at a time when "the idea of sailing west had not entered into men's minds." How is it that Harrisse, then, can make his catalogue of tentative voyages for thirty or forty years before 1492? When Mr. Markham says that "assuredly the discovery of the New World was no accident," does not the dictionary on his table define an "accident" to be "an event proceeding from an unknown cause, or happening without design of the agent; an unforeseen event"? Assuredly Mr. Markham cannot contend that Columbus expected to discover America. When he wants to make it appear that Columbus believed he had seen a token of land in the mysterious light at ten o'clock, when he was approaching his goal, he says that "Columbus determined to keep the same course until daylight *under very easy sail.*" Who knew about this so well as Las Casas, with Columbus's journal before him, and he makes the Admiral say, "After sunset sailed twelve miles an hour till two hours after midnight." Irving calls this "a rapid rate," and there is no sign in it certainly of slackening speed. Would Mr. Markham call it a "slip of the pen" on Las Casas's part? Our biographer says that this light was "universally believed to be on land," to account for the claim which Columbus put in for the award of a prize. Las Casas represents Columbus as saying, "which *some* thought an indication of land." Another slip? Again Mr. Markham says: "The acquisition of gold took a very secondary place in the mind of this great man, whose unselfish thoughts were ever bent on the achievement of discoveries for the welfare of the human race." Again it is a pity that Las Casas made a slip of the pen when he wrote, "The Admiral thought and watched and worked for nothing more than to contrive that there might come income to the sovereigns"; and Columbus was a sharer in such income.

The book is a capital instance of the way in which an historian under such unconscious sway is controlled by his own wishes, as if they were proofs. He cannot bear to think that Bartholomew had been more of a pioneer than his brother, and so, without any ado, discredits the early writers who represent the future Adelantado to have been engaged in making charts in Lisbon when Christopher arrived there; simply because the notarial records of Genoa find Bartholomew in that town in 1480, six

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years after his brother is known to have gone to Portugal. Is there any evidence to show that Bartholomew could not have visited Genoa after the sojourn in Spain which the early writers give him? Without the slightest evidence to support it, Mr. Markham assumes that Columbus must have had acquaintance with and been consulted by Martin Behaim in Portugal, when the correspondence of that cosmographer and Münzmeister on the subjects nearest to Columbus's consciousness contains strong indications that the German never heard of the Genoese. We may well ask for a single recorded circumstance that points to the conclusion that Columbus had ever heard of a western passage before he reached Portugal, or before Toscanelli impelled him to the belief; and yet Mr. Markham finds it meet to maintain that Columbus was in thoughts a discoverer before he left Savona.

Mr. Markham cannot even allow that John Cabot saw the Continent of North America before Columbus saw the Southern Continent. He acknowledges that very few facts about Cabot's voyages are known, believes that the land first seen was an inner corner of Cape Breton Island, and finds no mention of other land but islands; therefore, the Continent of America was not then discovered. He thus pays no regard to the distinct terms of Cabot's patent for a second voyage, which is a bit of positive evidence of what was then believed, when it speaks of "the land *and* isles of late found by the said John"; nor does Mr. Markham recognize the positive evidence of La Cosa, who used Cabot's results, when he placed the legend "Sea discovered by the English" along a continental shore.

It would seem, too, that he could not bear to have Columbus make advances for reconciliation with Fonseca, although such an advance would support his belief in Columbus being "utterly devoid of any vindictive theory." It happens that this "implacable enemy" of Columbus was advanced to the Bishopric of Placentia, and that after this event Columbus wrote to some one at the Court in terms of pleasantry, asking to have "the Bishop of Placentia" reminded of their mutual and early acquaintance and of Columbus's wish to lodge with him. Mr. Markham does not allow the slightest suspicion of doubt to rise when he asserts that it was of Deza, the bishop whom Fonseca succeeded, that Columbus spoke so kindly. It may be true that it was, and that Columbus, though in constant communication with the Court, had not heard of Deza's giving place to Fonseca in that episcopal station; but to fly in the face of chronology, without admitting a doubt, could better serve his purpose. The Catholic writers are glad to seize upon the incident as proving that lack of vindictiveness for which Mr. Markham contends.

We have said thus much to indicate how a ripe student can be swerved by unconscious predilections. If licenses like these be allowed, how can any historical character stand against the personal equation of the historian? With such a method it needs only adroitness to make a saint of any devil or a devil of any saint.

There is no Englishman who has acquired reputation in this field better able, from learning, than Mr. Markham to attack the difficult problems in it. He shows his skill when he elucidates the evidence upon the landfall of Columbus; but we hardly know how to account for his omission of the theory of Harrisse when he professes to mention all. There are not many, indeed there are few, slips in the book, where the personal character of Columbus is not concerned. It is, to be sure, strange to find Mr. Markham saying that Behaim's globe had no Antillia on it, when his own engraving of it gives evidence to the contrary. He makes a contention in regard to the Cantino map which, if it be conceded that he proves his point, not only knocks out the props of the alleged voyage of Vespucius in 1497, but also dispels some of the strongest arguments of Harrisse against that alleged expedition. He contends that what has been considered the point of Florida on that map is really the easterly cape at the entrance of Chesapeake Bay, and that the compiler of the map simply blundered in placing Cuba so near that Florida is the natural interpretation of that point. He does not seem to observe that by so doing he throws into the realm of hallucination a long series of maps following up the Cantino idea, including some of the most prominent monuments which we have of the cartography of that day, like the maps and globes of Stobnicza, Schöner, Reisch, and the recently discovered gores known by the names of Tross and Nordenskiöld. Mr. Markham has a task before him to rehabilitate this early geography if all these monuments are overthrown. The confused notions of Mr. Markham's simpleton who used the Cortereal cards in blundering on the Cantino map, can hardly have been adopted by some of these learned cosmographers.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

New types of books for the young we may not regularly expect with the recurring season of greatest productiveness, nor fine examples of imaginative creation. The class which is always with us, and which is not to be despised, is historical and geographical, and this is already fully represented on our table.

Col. T. W. Knox's 'The Boy Travellers in Central Europe' (Harpers) is the latest volume in a well-known series. It describes a summer's journey throug some of the more interesting parts of France, Switzerland, the Tyrol, and Austria. The author attempts, and not unsuccessfully, to impart some of the information which a guide-book contains in an entertaining way, by means of the conversations and extracts from the diaries and letters of the travellers. We are constrained to say, however, that his frequent attempts at humor and the foolish remarks of the mother of one of the boys do not make the book more attractive. Nor is he always happy in his choice of the topics upon which he writes. In his account of Paris, for instance, considerable space is given to a description of a reception at the French Academy and an evening at a noted salon, in which few young readers can take an interest, while places to which boys would naturally go are not mentioned. The volume is well illustrated, and has maps of the routes pursued conveniently placed on the inside of the covers. If it had an index, it might be useful as a book of reference, since it contains many valuable historical facts and short biographies of distinguished characters.

'Canoemates' (Harpers), by Kirk Munroe, is an entertaining story for boys, and will usefully enlarge their knowledge of our great Atlantic peninsula. Two boys make a trip in canoes from Key West along the Florida Reef to the western coast of the mainland, and from thence through the Everglades to the Atlantic. They have numerous adventures in terrible storms, with thieves, cowboys, wild animals, and huge fish, and especially with the Seminoles, of whom a very attractive account is given. There are excellent descriptions, also, of the peculiar scenery of the Keys and southern Florida, of the sponge-fishery, and of life in a light-house, on a key, in a station on the Atlantic coast, and in an Indian village. Much information is given about canoes, their construction and management.

The same region has attracted Mr. Charles F. Holder, whose 'Along the Florida Reef' (Appletons) purports to be a record of the experiences of several boys among the Florida Keys, with a story as a sort of thread upon which are strung numerous observations of the varied and remarkable fauna of that subtropical region. The story is of trifling importance, but the varied adventures of the boys, while sailing, hunting, and fishing, are sufficiently exciting to make a very readable book. The natural history is somewhat of the sensational order, and would probably have benefited by revision at the hands of some sober-minded biologist, and the illustrations in some cases have only a very remote connection with the text. Still, with all its faults, the book presents a picture of life in a quarter far removed from the experience of most boys, and they will doubtless welcome it for its novelty, while incidentally learning more or less about creatures not to be found in zoölogical gardens and which most of us hardly know even by name.

The scene of 'Four on an Island' (Cassell), by Mrs. L. T. Meade, is laid in Brazil, and the heroes of the story are four children—two boys and two girls, the eldest of whom is fourteen and the youngest nine—and a dog. They drift upon an uninhabited island, where they are obliged to stay for several weeks before they are rescued. During this time they build a hut and manage to live comfortably, having for food turtles, eggs, and fish. Their chief danger lies in the huge and voracious land-crabs with which the island abounds. The little folks for whom the story was written and who are not yet familiar with the 'Swiss Family Robinson,' will find it attractive enough.

'Englishman's Haven' (Appletons), by W. J. Gordon, tells of the two sieges of Louisbourg, in 1745 and 1758, and it would be difficult to find a more graphic account of the strange fate of this fortress. The colonial army under "Mr." Pepperrell, with its "mixture of reckless audacity, pious enthusiasm, and exuberant boyishness," and Boston under the double excitement of Whitefield's preaching and the preparation for the expedition, are described as if by an eye-witness. So, also, is the spirited account of the gallant defence of Annapolis Royal by Col. Mascarene against the French and Indians, and the capture of the two French men-of-war in the harbor of Louisbourg at the second siege. There is a somewhat tangled thread of romance running through the story, in which a mysterious Indian conjurer and his squaw play a prominent part. Among the noted characters introduced are Montcalm, Wolfe, and Capt. Cook. The author has very happily shown the spirit of the time of which he writes, its habits of thought and manner of speech, by making the hero of his tale, a Scotch lad, its narrator. He exhibits all the English colonist's bitterness of feeling against the French, heartily commending, for instance, the expatriation of the Acadians. The sketch of the infamous Abbé Le Loutre, we trust, is not in all points historically true, though it certainly corresponds to the reputation which he bore among his contemporaries. The illustrations are exceptionally good.

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There is a quaint originality and life in Brander Matthews's 'Tom Paulding' (The Century Co.), a very enjoyable story. The scene is laid in the upper part of New York city, the days of the Revolution being skilfully linked with our own times. Three or four "real" boys, a girl, an adventure-loving Uncle Dick, the very model of what a boy would like in a bachelor uncle, are the principal actors, and the seeking a buried treasure is the main incident. The interest in the hero's quest is more than well-sustained, the last chapters being the best in the book. Tom himself is a manly, straightforward, unselfish fellow, devoted to his mother and sister—a boy, in a word, whose companionship is worth having, even though it be only in a story.

'The End of a Rainbow' (Scribners), by Rossiter Johnson, is an ingenious, but at times over-fanciful, story of the doings of some boys and girls in an inland town a few years before the Rebellion. Among other things, they search a mill-race for lost treasures, write prize stories for a newspaper, make an exploring expedition in a canal-boat, and "unhaunt" a haunted house. The story is supposed to be told by one of the number, and is for the most part humorous after a boyish fashion, but some of the fun is rather above childish heads. Nor will they be likely to understand the author's meaning in the closing chapters, which have a curiously despondent tone. The narrator comes back to his home, after a six years' absence in the heart of Java, to learn for the first time from a wounded playmate the story of the just-finished civil war.

The war is the theme of 'The Battle of New York' (Appletons), by William O. Stoddard. Two lads, one a Confederate, the other a Unionist, are the joint heroes. The former acts as a spy, carrying despatches between Gen. Lee and his New York allies. On his return from this city he witnesses the battle of Gettysburg. The other is a newsboy, and defends his house against an attack by the mob during the draft riots of 1863. The description of these terrible days and more awful nights is very animated, and is by far the best part of the book. The story, with this exception, is told in a somewhat confused and spasmodic way, which renders it difficult at times to keep the thread of the narrative. Some very improbable incidents are introduced, and there is also a tiresome imitation, by bad spelling, of street-talk, of which the less the better in this kind of literature.

The author, M. Louise Putnam, of 'The Children's Life of Abraham Lincoln' (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.) disclaims any expectation of amusing the children for whom she has written. She hopes to interest them and instruct them, and we think she will succeed. But the children who will enjoy the chapters dealing with Lincoln's maturity must be older than those who will enjoy the first chapters. The book improves as it goes on, and there is some danger that those who would delight in the later chapters will be discouraged by the earlier. These are a little sentimental, and they give a decidedly rose-colored account of Lincoln's parents, while the sordid misery of his childhood and early youth would hardly be guessed from what is written. Consequently, no adequate sense is conveyed of that innate nobility which triumphed over the most unfavorable environment. A good feature of the book is its brief expositions here and there of the forms of government. The Electoral College is taken too seriously, and there is no indication of the difference of its present operation from the intention of its founders. In treating of the slavery question there is not a hint of any forces working for the destruction of slavery outside of the political parties. There is not even a word concerning the political anticipations of the Republican party in the Liberty and Free-Soil parties. Children will be apt to feel some disappointment at finding Lincoln so willing to save the Union without destroying slavery, while yet he was a good deal in advance of his party in his anti-slavery sentiments. It is a rhetorical exaggeration, aggravated by italics, to say that Lincoln's proclamation, "by a stroke of his pen, freed a whole race," as it did not affect the border States. There is no mention of the Constitutional Amendment finishing his work. The best feature of the book is the copious extracts from Lincoln's speeches and addresses. They will prove the most comprehensible parts of the story—"words so deep that a child can understand them," as Theodore Parker said of the teachings of Jesus.

"Mackay of Uganda" (A. C. Armstrong & Son) was a missionary, the story of whose stirring life cannot fail to stimulate the boys for whom it was written. He was singularly well-fitted for the work of a pioneer of Christian civilization in a barbarous country. Born in a Scottish manse, and educated partly in a university and partly in a machine shop, he joined the habits of thought and speech of a minister to the skill of a practical engineer. To these qualifications for a typical missionary should be added a sunny disposition, wholesouled devotion to his work, great tact in dealing with the natives, and a perfect fearlessness of death for a just cause. His life was crowded with interesting and exciting incidents. He was familiar not only with the perils of the African forests, deserts, and lakes, but with persecutions as fierce as those which raged in the first centuries of our era. Many lads whom he taught Christian truth while laboring at the forge or in the boatyard, were dragged from his side to testify in the flames to their belief in Mackay's God. He himself escaped a hundred times, only because of his usefulness as a machinist to the savage king Mwanga. It is greatly to be regretted that his biographer, his sister, has so little faculty for telling his story in a manner attractive to the young. She lacks the essential power of graphically picturing the scenes in which her brother played so conspicuous and so heroic a part, and overburdens her book with frequent and long quotations from diaries and letters intended for older readers. Still, notwithstanding these defects, we believe that some boys will be led by the book to promote in some way "the moral and spiritual regeneration" of Africa.

'Mixed Pickles' (Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.), by Evelyn Raymond, is a very sprightly narrative of the doings of six cousins suddenly brought together in the farm-house of their Quaker grandmother. Their varied characters are well delineated, the plucky little Fritz and his bright sister Octave being made especially attractive. The account of the manner in which the boy invalid is cured, both morally and bodily, though marred a little by the improbable "mystery" of his great medical discovery, is certainly novel and interesting. A little romance is introduced by the marriage of the delightful German uncle to the rather sharp but lovable Quakeress aunt. The story is thoroughly wholesome and enjoyable, and at times not a little amusing.

BASTABLE'S PUBLIC FINANCE.

Public Finance. By C. F. Bastable, LL.D., Professor of Political Economy in the University of Dublin. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

THE subject of public finance, Prof. Bastable observes, has not been systematically treated in English since McCulloch wrote, well-nigh half a century ago, and the lack of a suitable manual has been especially felt by teachers. Upon the whole, we incline to think that this book will supply the want as satisfactorily as is possible. To say the truth, there is practically no science of finance, nor is there any approach to agreement as to the principles upon which such a science might be constructed. A very considerable number of people look upon government as an evil only tolerable because it prevents the worse evils of anarchy, and consider it essentially and permanently incapable of transacting any business in as efficient and economical a manner as its subjects. Upon their side, they claim, all experience is arrayed. A larger number, perhaps, regard government as a "fountain" of benefits, to use Blackstone's expression, and are for enlarging its functions, and therefore its expenditures, upon every opportunity. Upon their side is the passion for equality and the belief in human perfectibility. It might seem that the difference between these schools of thought related only to the amount of expenditure, but a little reflection shows that the methods of raising revenue are equally the cause of dispute. While the controversy between free-traders and protectionists continues, it is safe to say that there will be no common consent as to what is sound finance.

Were the protectionists disposed of, there would remain the prohibitionists and anti-tobacconists, who regard the taxation of the accursed thing as implying a league between Satan and the Government; the single-tax men, who would raise all revenue from rates upon land; the believers in an income tax, who would tax persons rather than things; and those who hold to taxing all property, real and personal. As a matter of fact, the Government obtains a revenue by disregarding all these theories in part and recognizing them to a greater or less extent. In this way an empirical system of taxation comes to exist in every country, which is scientific only because it is found to work. So long as it does produce revenue from subjects and does not produce rebellion among them, it satisfies the ordinary requirements of rulers, and improvements are likely to consist chiefly in modifications that increase revenue without increasing discontent. The financial system of England is a growth of this kind, and to be defended upon this ground. Prof. Bastable does not seem to us to be free from a certain insularity of view upon this subject. He evidently regards the English system of taxation as approximating the ideal, but if we examine his arguments, it will be found that they amount to maintaining that by combining a number of individually objectionable taxes a desirable compound will result. The truth is, that the burden of taxation in Great Britain is relatively very light, and no matter how bad a tax may be in theory, if it practically is not oppressive, it is likely to be retained.

Taxation is an institution like language. Philologists could easily construct a language which should be a far more perfect instrument for the expression of thought than any that now exists. The mere substitution of the symbols of the stenographer for our alphabet would

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result in an enormous saving of time in both reading and writing, and even phonetic spelling would save a year's painful toil to those who have to acquire the English tongue. But not even the least of these reforms is practicable, because it is as impossible to change the customs of a whole people as it is to frame an indictment against them. Immediate inconvenience outweighs infinite future advantage. *Nolumus leges mutari* expresses the common feeling in regard to taxation. Men know the ills of established taxes, and would rather bear them than fly to others that they know not of. Hence a new tax is almost always odious, no matter what its abstract merits; and legislators and administrative officers will generally find it safer to follow the beaten paths than to incur the risks of adopting the most attractive innovations. The history of taxation, therefore, like that of language, is the record of adaptations of existing institutions to new demands. No change is made except of necessity, and its nature when made is determined by immediate expediency.

Nevertheless, a certain number of empirical rules have come to be recognized by financiers, and it is in the presentation of these that Prof. Bastable does his best work. Certain taxes have been found to be peculiarly odious and therefore unproductive. Hence they are to be discarded in favor of those that are less unpopular. Others are uncertain in their product or expensive in their collection, and these tend to be abandoned. The machinery of collection is from time to time improved, and the most productive rates are ascertained by experience, until it is possible to determine in a well-governed country like England just how much revenue may be expected from a tax and just how much it ought to cost to collect it. So, too, in the matter of borrowing, the methods have reached a high degree of perfection, and most governments, it may be added, have taken full advantage of this improvement.

We have spoken as if finance and taxation were the same thing, but Prof. Bastable observes that although taxation is the principal source of public revenue, it is not the only one. Formerly governments were large owners of property, and although revenue from this source is now relatively insignificant, it is intrinsically considerable. The German States especially undertake much business upon public account, and just at present there is a loud cry in England for municipal ownership of gas and water-works and street railways. Prof. Bastable shows that enterprises of this kind are not as a rule very profitable. A great many States own railways, but the kingdom of Prussia is the only one that makes them pay. Whether there may be other public benefits compensating for this financial loss is a different question. It may be contended that the Government should not aim to derive a profit from such services, but it is easy to see that where a profit is not the end of a business, a deficiency is likely to occur, which in the case of governments must be made up by taxation. Upon this point the practice of the post-offices of Great Britain and the United States may be contrasted.

Considering the multifarious information collected in this volume, it seems a grave error of judgment not to provide it with an index. It will, of course, be read through by some, but its value is as a book of reference, and as such it would naturally be consulted by a great many readers who must now turn to more available sources of information. It is a little surprising, we may add, that although Mr. D. A. Wells's report on taxation in New York is quoted, Prof. Bastable seems to be ignorant of his classical reports as Commissioner of Internal Revenue and of their results. Perhaps no documents more instructive for the financier are in existence, nor has any reform in methods of raising revenue comparable to that instituted by Mr. Wells taken place at any recent date. But in general Prof. Bastable displays a very thorough acquaintance with his subject, especially on its practical side, as well as with what has been written about it. His book will at once take its place as the standard English manual of finance, and its merits are such as to make it probable that it will hold this place for a long time to come.

LORD LOFTUS'S RECOLLECTIONS.

The Diplomatic Reminiscences of Lord Augustus Loftus, P.C., G.C.B. First Series. 1837-1862. 2 vols. Cassell Publishing Co. Pp. 428 and 343.

THESE reminiscences will extend over nearly fifty years of diplomatic service, the most important scenes of which were Vienna and Berlin. The style of the writer throughout is painfully like that of a protocol, and, when he speaks of the doings of royalty, it is in language as devotional as that of the column of Court News in the *Morning Post*. But beneath the ample folds of buckram, professional and social, we find a character not uninteresting or without value. It is that of a public man who has spent a long life, not in the service of a party, but in that of his Government and his country. You can see that he is always honestly doing his best to fulfil the good objects of his calling by preserving friendly relations, settling international differences, and keeping the world at peace. He is impassive, as his profession requires, and seldom allows his own opinion, still more seldom his own feelings, to appear. But you can see that his sympathies are liberal. His judgments of men are perfectly calm. Only in the case of "Albert the Goody," as some profane persons have called him, does the diplomatist feel impelled by his loyalty to work himself up to a strain of eulogy which reminds us of the singular monument in Hyde Park, where all the representatives of the world's genius are seen filing in humble procession round the feet of the Prince Consort.

On the other hand, those who look for diplomatic revelations or spicy anecdote will suffer the same disappointment here on a small scale which they suffered on a large scale in the Memoirs of Talleyrand. If Lord Augustus Loftus saw any secret springs of action, or was behind the curtain of any mystery, the reticence of the diplomatist has prevailed. One curious document he gives us. It was placed in his hands, he says, by a colleague who had come from Paris and who was intimate with the circle of the Emperor Napoleon III. It is without signature, date, or address, but purports to be an outline of the Emperor's policy, if not an instruction to one of his Ministers. As it is short, we may give it in Lord Augustus's own translation:

"Pending the duration of the war in Italy, it will be necessary to keep back and flatter England in order to obtain her inaction and to be assured of her neutrality.

"The war in Italy happily and victoriously terminated, the great operation in the East will commence in concert with Russia, and England will be attacked simultaneously on her coasts and her naval stations in the Mediterranean.

"As for Prussia, one laughs at her diplomatic measures, which aim at obtaining a guarantee from the Emperor not to attack Austria on her territory belonging to the German Confederation, and to preserve to the minor Italian Princes their respective territories. As for Germany, a certain esteem will be pretended for her organization, her civilization, her progress; and it will be given out at Frankfort that it is a mere question of the liberation of Italy, except making solemn promises never to attack German territory; but in reality the populations will be roused against the Governments, and Prussia and the Diet will be held in check by Russia."

Lord Augustus seems inclined to think that the paper is authentic; at least he remarks that it corresponds with the Emperor's habits of mind, and receives confirmation from subsequent events.

"The Emperor Napoleon," he says, "was apt to act under sudden impulses. He was easily impressed by those feelings for oppressed nationalities which he had imbibed in his early youth, and he was the more easily seduced by those feelings when they harmonized with his ambitious views of remodelling the map of Europe, without at the same time taking any decided resolution of carrying them into execution. . . . Thus it was that his policy often appeared tortuous and inconsistent, and his apparent want of sincerity was productive of disbelief and distrust.

"There were two currents in the direction of his foreign policy, viz., that of the ordinary official current through his accredited diplomacy, and that carried on through the medium of secret agents unknown to his Cabinet, the result of which was that the language of his ministers abroad was not always in harmony with the Emperor's views and with facts. Thus, while negotiating for the pacific settlement of the affairs of Italy, he had predetermined on war, and at the same time was negotiating with Count Cavour, through a secret agent, the arrangements for action."

Napoleon III. was a sort of visionary cracksman. His imagination, wandering from one of his neighbors' houses to the other, was always planning a nocturnal enterprise against some of them. Even while his legs were under your dinner-table, his eyes were dreamily looking for the easiest access to your strong-box. But he was irresolute, and if he found your locks and bars strong, he turned his inventive genius at once in another direction. His prison meditations had filled his mind with schemes of every kind, first for his own exaltation and afterwards for the reconstruction of the world. Nobody ever was safe in his hands. While he was concocting the *Coup d'État*, he was gratuitously prodigal of perfidious disclaimers, and professions of loyalty to the Republic. The alarm about his designs which gave birth to the Volunteer movement in England, seemed to many a senseless panic, but it appears that after his fall he made proposals to the German Emperor which prove the alarm to have been anything but groundless. His fancy generally ran in the track of the first Emperor's designs, and, had the Confederates obtained his aid, they would probably have been asked to pay for it by the surrender of Louisiana.

Another curious little trait of Napoleon III. is connected with the negotiations at Villafranca which closed the Italian war. It seems that he shrank from a personal interview with the Austrian Emperor, because, as he told Metternich, he felt sure that he should fall under Francis Joseph's personal influence. "J'ai eu bien raison d'avoir redouté l'entrevue avec sa Majesté votre souverain, car j'étais bien sûr qu'elle me subjugerait." It can hardly have been the intellectual influence of Francis Joseph that Napoleon dreaded; he must have felt that as a parvenu and a usurper he would succumb to the majesty of legitimate royalty. Probably he was conscious that he

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was not only a parvenu and a usurper, but an impostor, and that there was no more of the Bonaparte in his true pedigree than there was in his head and face. It is curious that this open secret, though a perfectly open secret it was, practically did him so little harm. The recollection of the falsehoods that he had told while he was preparing to spring on Austria, may also have had something to do with his personal shyness in meeting Francis Joseph.

The views of Lord Augustus on the subject of the Crimean War and the relations between Great Britain and Russia are those which one would expect from a man of sense. He sees that the war ought never to have taken place, and that its results have come to nothing. Russia has regained possession of the territories ceded in Bessarabia, and the clauses limiting her naval forces and prohibiting her construction of fortresses on the Black Sea are a dead letter. Great Britain, Lord Augustus thinks, ought to place herself at once on a thoroughly good footing with Russia, the other great Asiatic Power. Reasonable Englishmen will agree with him in this. The Empire of Russia in Central Asia has grown from causes as natural as those by which the Empire of Great Britain has grown in Southern Asia, and there is no reason why the two Empires, each of them having reached its limits of extension and become coterminous with the other, should not rest side by side in peace. Russia's threats and her designs, if she really has any, of invading Hindustan, would probably pass away if Great Britain would withdraw the veto which, for reasons not easy to understand, she persists in putting on Russia's access to the Mediterranean, where the presence of Russia, so far as appears, would be no more dangerous to England than that of the other maritime Powers. The Crimean war was brought on mainly by the personal influence of three men, all of whom were bent on war from the beginning: Lord Palmerston, Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, and Louis Napoleon; the first two being actuated by that almost insane Russophobia which had before led Palmerston into the disastrous invasion of Afghanistan, the third by the desire of surrounding his upstart throne with a halo of military glory and of forcing his own way into the circle of legitimate monarchs. The overbearing temper of the Czar had no doubt furnished these intriguers with the occasion, but there was nothing which diplomacy would not have settled had they not been determined that settlement there should be none, and covertly worked together to prevent one. Had Lord Aberdeen been bold enough to recall Lord Stratford de Redcliffe from Constantinople, peace might have been preserved. But, unfortunately, Lord Aberdeen, a man of much less force than virtue, and the head of an ill-cemented coalition, was not master of his own Cabinet.

The anecdotes and personal touches in these volumes are very few. But here is an amusing little story of Brougham:

"The King [of Würtemberg] had a magnificent stud of Arab horses, which he procured at great expense from Syria, and of which he was very proud. When Lord Brougham visited Stuttgart, he was taken round the stables by the King's Master of the Horse. It was a bitterly cold day, and Lord Brougham, slightly clad, and with trousers scarcely reaching to his ankles, ran hastily through the stables, never looked at a horse, and on coming out merely observed to the Master of the Horse 'that the money spent on the stables would be more advantageously spent in building a suitable university for the education of the nobility.' The Master of the Horse, unaccustomed to receive any but loud encomiums of praise and admiration, was reduced to dumb silence."

Few are now alive who can remember those trousers scarcely reaching to the ankles, and can vividly represent to themselves how Brougham would scuttle through the stables, and with what play of face, especially of the incomparable nose, the observation which crushed the Master of the Horse would be delivered. Here is a story of Lord Westmorland, British Envoy at Berlin, also amusing in its way:

"On one occasion an English gentleman called to see Lord Westmorland on particular business. He was at breakfast, and, receiving him with his usual urbanity, asked the object of his visit. The gentleman said that he felt somewhat aggrieved that he had brought an official letter of introduction to him from the Foreign Office, and, having learnt that his Lordship had given a great dinner the night before, was surprised and hurt at receiving no invitation. Lord Westmorland exclaimed, with his usual heartiness, 'God bless me, sir, I am really quite distressed. I think I received the letter of which you speak. I will send for it.' Accordingly the letter was brought to him, and on reading it he said to the stranger, 'Ah! I thought so. There, sir, is the letter; but there is no mention of dinner in it,' on which the gentleman rose and backed out of the room in confusion."

Metternich and Bismarck appear in their usual aspect. Old Metternich said to Lord Augustus, when he told him that something would never happen, "Mon cher, il ne faut jamais dire 'jamais.'" Metternich's political memory, reaching back to the time before the French Revolution, gave plenty of point to the remark. Bismarck often said to Lord Augustus that "he gloried in having no principles, and he observed that when you wished to gain a certain object, your principles cross your path and defeat your aim." Bismarck's frankness is astounding. Perhaps it is calculated and used as the best cloak for his designs. At a dinner in London in 1861, he told Disraeli, then leader of the Opposition, that he should shortly be obliged to undertake the direction of the Prussian Government, that his first duty would be to reorganize the army, that he would then take the first pretext to declare war against Austria, to dissolve the Germanic Diet, to overpower the middle and smaller States, and to give a national unity to Germany under the leadership of Prussia. He added that he had come to say this to the Queen's Ministers. Disraeli's remark was, "Take care of that man; he means what he says."

The importance of the diplomatic profession has been greatly reduced by the change from personal to Parliamentary government. The most adroit of ambassadors can no longer serve his Government much by playing on the personal characters of kings or ministers, much less on that of kings' mistresses, as he might in former days. No diplomatic Walpole will ever again acquire a valuable connection for his country by visiting a Fleury in the hour of his temporary disgrace. Still, these men will have their value so long as anything of a personal element enters into international relations. Especially they will have their value where the foreign minister of their own country is not familiar with the national leaders and cannot well act by telegraph. This is particularly the case with regard to Washington, of the personalities of which a British foreign minister is totally ignorant, and where without a good informant on the spot he would be to a great extent negotiating in the dark.

The West from a Car Window. By Richard Harding Davis. Illustrated. New York: Harper & Bros. 1892.

THE only poor thing about this book is its title. It is not the West from a car window. It is the West from the inside, from among the sunflowers, the cacti, the mountain peaks. Mr. Davis is not only a practised and effective writer, but he is an acute and intelligent observer, who has the enviable faculty of understanding the most of what he sees, notwithstanding it may be novel; and when necessary, he can expose for the consideration of the thoughtful a serious subject, without burying it under solemnity or making it ridiculous by burlesque. If he could prospect for "mineral" with the keenness that he does for characteristics, a new bonanza might be developed any hour. Troopers on the field against Garza, Indians on a reservation, Creede, the settled and the barren West, the clubs and the architecture of Denver, and the amenities and the loneliness of a frontier post, ranch life, Oklahoma, and fifty other topics are treated with spirit, with accuracy, with intelligence. There is not a dull line in the book, but the United States soldier, commissioned and enlisted, and the American Indian alike have cause to be grateful for the fate that drew them into the line of vision of such a delineator. His occasional chapters give a truer view of both classes than half-a-dozen "military" romances.

Mr. Davis has enjoyed his excursion frankly, and those who follow him in spirit will enjoy it likewise. He offers only impressions, and not conclusions, but they are the impressions of a cultivated and liberal critic. He declines to draw morals for others, who may find their own; but it is quite obvious that he is like the man who would rather be a lamp-post in the streets of New York than live in wealth out of it. He doesn't say that, but he does say: "The West is a very wonderful, large, unfinished, and out-of-doors portion of our country, and a most delightful place to *visit*."

The book has many excellent illustrations, some by Remington.

Logarithmic and Other Mathematical Tables. By William J. Hussey, Professor of Astronomy in the Leland Stanford Junior University, etc. Ann Arbor: Register Publishing Co. 1892.

FOR the semi-occasional user of logarithms, collections like Köhler's are best. But a person who is destined to use up several books of tables by the wearing-down of the paper under his fingers—which commonly happens to expert mathematicians—will prefer to be provided with four-place, five-place, six-place, and seven-place tables, since the expenditure of time in working with these is in the ratios of 1:2:3:4, respectively. Can the tables before us be recommended as being about as good as others? They are printed upon paper fairly opaque and quite free from sheen, substantial but rather cottony to the touch and too white. A small page is a recognized advantage in tables of logarithms. These pages are taller than those of any five-place tables we know except Hoüel's. The ink is not quite so black as we could wish, and some pages are a little gray. Very many figures look as if printed from worn types. The fourth figure of log. 4092 comes from a wrong font. The alignment leaves much to be desired. The type is of the old pattern, which in our judgment is preferable to the Huttonian character (the pattern now common in ordinary printing, invented,

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it is guessed, by Dr. Charles Hutton in 1783), but inferior to the Egyptian, which are all of one height but without hair-lines.

We may examine the arrangement of the table of logarithms of numbers. Each tenth value of the argument is printed in Huttonian type. This gives it sufficient prominence; the large black round-numbers of Babbage are unnecessary. The table is arranged in a Newtonian block, which we deem more convenient than the columnar form, especially since it brings twice as many numbers on each page. The table everywhere opens to exactly 1,000 logarithms, not counting those on the last line, which are a sort of catch, or rehearsal of the first line of the next page. This is a point of great superiority over Bowditch, Schlömilch, etc. The numbers in each tenth line are placed between horizontal rules, while the intervening nine lines are divided by leads into three sets of three. This is the plan of the highly approved tables of Bremiker; yet we prefer, with Schrön and others, the division by leads into sets of five. The first two figures of the five-figure logarithms are given only in the first column at the top of the page and where they change. Bremiker thus separates only one figure, while Bowditch gives all five in every column. The ten columns of the block are all separated by vertical rules, that after the fifth being extra heavy. This is the customary way, but we are fully persuaded that all these vertical lines are productive of error in following the horizontal lines with the eye. We consider the tables of Schlömilch, Oppolzer, J. M. Peirce, and others, which omit all but the line after the fifth column, as much the more comfortable.

The indication of a change of the figure in the last place of unrepeated decimals is by an asterisk prefixed to every logarithm affected. This is decidedly the best method. The proportional parts are exact to the sixth place. The practice of thus printing the proportional parts arose in consequence of Babbage, in his seven-place table, printing a dot under every terminal figure which had been increased. This he did on the ground that all information which could be given without disadvantage should be given—a good principle for seven-place tables, without doubt. Only, upon that principle, De Morgan's plan should be adopted of distinguishing the quarters of the last unit by means of the four ordinary punctuation marks, thus making the tables accurate to a fraction of the number entered equal to unity divided by a power of ten. However, Babbage's system was extensively adopted, and consequently it was necessary to give the proportional parts more accurately. Prof. Hussey prints a dash over every increased 5, whether it be terminal or not, and over no other increased numbers. It luckily happens that there is no case in the table of an increased 5 followed by three zeros, otherwise the system would break down. Now, we think a system illogical, and therefore inelegant, which can only be carried out by virtue of an accident. But what is the use of carrying the proportional parts to six places? Everybody must allow that it would be bad economy of time in computing to write down one's numbers alternately to five and to six places of decimals. Now, what difference does it make that we add the six-place numbers in our heads? A centimetre and a half at the bottom of each page of the table is devoted to giving the values of S and T, and that not unambiguously. This seems decidedly awkward.

There are trigonometrical tables, both logarithmic and natural, tables of addition and subtraction logarithms, etc. At the end of the book are given formulæ and constants. The latter are pretty carelessly collected and copied. The velocity of light is made to be 296,944 kilometres per second! Clarke's value of the metre in inches, 39.370432, is given, although its error has been known for many years. First Prof. Rogers and then Gen. Comstock made fairly concordant determinations, very different from Clarke's. In fact, his was merely the result of measuring copies of Bessel's toise in inches, and then deducing the length of 443.296 lines of the toise, this being the number of lines of the *toise de Pérou* intended to make the metre at the time of the construction of the latter. But recently M. Benoît of the International Bureau has shown that the metre so deduced from Bessel's toise is too long by its 74,000th part. So, correcting Clarke's determination, and combining it, reduced to a weight of ⅛, with the values obtained by Rogers and Comstock, we find:

	Inches.
Rogers	39.37027
Comstock	39.36985
Clarke, corr. by Benoît	39.36990
Weighted mean	39.37004

This makes 25.40003 millimetres in an inch. If we remember, then, that 39.37 and 25.4 should each be increased by one-millionth part of itself, we shall have the fact as accurately as it is known. We find this convenient rule used in the Yaryan Company's Tables. Prof. Hussey's book will do for easily contented computers.

Children's Rights: A Book of Nursery Logic. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Children: Their Models and Critics. By Auretta Roys Aldrich. Harper & Bros.

An Old World observer of our social traits would probably be inclined to smile at the title 'Children's Rights' on the cover of a volume addressed to an American public. Mrs. Wiggin, however, forestalls irony by eliminating at the outset any fond-mother interpretations of her theme. "A multitude of privileges, or rather indulgences," she very truly observes, "can exist with a total disregard of the child's rights." Translated into other terms, children's rights are parents' duties. A bird's-eye view of these duties is given in the first of the essays of which the volume is composed. A more than fair proportion of the nine remaining ones (three of which are by Mrs. Wiggin's sister, Miss Nora Smith) is devoted to a lively partisanship of the methods of Froebel, and to the desirability of sending children to learn of his disciples in the kindergarten.

In spite of the genuine sympathy of the collaborators for the little waifs and strays, as well as for the happier youngsters whose cause they have espoused, we do not think they have done justice to their subject. There is an unfortunate lack of sequence in the papers, and much repetition that might have been avoided. They are, moreover, composed in too disjointed a fashion to exercise on the reader the persuasion which is force. And, notwithstanding a probable and natural prepossession in favor of the biographer of the little hero Timothy, the "gentle" reader cannot fail to be repelled by such blatant slang as the following: "He does not realize that she [the American woman] not only has in hand the emancipation of the American woman, but the reformation of the American man and the education of the American child. If that triangular mission in life does not keep her out of mischief and make her the angel of the twentieth century, she is a hopeless case."

Mrs. Aldrich, fortunately, does not write in what our critics have dubbed Americanese. Her little book is modest and attractive in form and modest and attractive in expression. Though it makes no new contribution towards the philosophy of education or the government of children, it displays the happy balance of profound sense of responsibility and good common sense that has stood many an excellent mother in stead of philosophy. There is internal evidence that Mrs. Aldrich, too, writes of the kindergarten from personal experience. She, however, sees clearly that there may be need of reform within a reform, and her counsel of perfection is no less to the kindergartner than to the parent. The homely illustrations of the points to be pressed home are such as readily sink into the memory, and the book is, on the whole, one that may do serviceable work where more authoritative teachers would fail of a hearing.

A Dictionary of Botanical Terms. By A. A. Crozier. Henry Holt & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. v, 202.

For the last twenty or thirty years botanical study has been so largely turned in the direction of anatomy and physiology that a host of new anatomical and physiological terms has been introduced, many words already in use have received new meanings, and not rarely different investigators have proposed the same term for very different ideas. All this new terminology has made a new botanical dictionary very desirable. This Dictionary is necessarily very much richer in words and definitions than any of its predecessors, and a brief examination of its pages shows that much labor has been bestowed upon the preparation of it. It would be impossible that such a work should be perfect, and one may easily point out deficiencies, and even an occasional insufficient or faulty definition. Such well-known terms as *Anadromous*, *Catadromous*, *Gemmiform*, *Glochidium*, and *Hypocraterimorphous* are lacking. Instead of the last of these is given the hybrid *Hypocrateriform*, an expression which Dr. Gray rejected even disdainfully. *Algology*, another hybrid, is honored with a definition—'the part of botany relating to algæ'—while *Phycology*, the preferable word linguistically, is given only as a synonym. *Octospore* is defined as 'an eight-fold tetraspore,' which it is not; to have said 'a definite group of eight spores' would have done very well. *Palmately-lobed* is wrongly defined, for it is the sinuses and not the "lobes" that "are directed towards the apex of the petiole."

The greatest defect of the book is the entire omission of derivations, for to know the etymology of a word is often a great help toward understanding its meaning. Botanists have been accused of fondness for sesquipedalian expressions, and the best reply to such accusation is naturally to show from its derivation the fitness of each technical word. No distinction is made between un-Anglicized Latin words, such as *Hortensis*, *Humilis*, and *Pumilus*, and such good English words as *Dwarf* and *Terrestrial*; and there is generally noticeable a sad neglect of Latin and Greek, the foundation-languages of scientific terminology.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alger, Horatio, Jr. Digging for Gold: A Story of California. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.
Amicis, Edmondo de. Camilla. W. R. Jenkins, 35 cents.

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Armstrong, W. An American Nobleman; A Story of the Canaan Wilderness. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Austen, Jane. Emma. 2 vols. London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Bastian, A. Ideale Welten in Wort und Bild. 3 vols. Berlin: Emil Felber.
Bax, E. B. The Problem of Reality. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Beck, Mme. Berthe. Fables Choisies de La Fontaine. W. R. Jenkins.
Bierce, A., and Danziger, G. A. The Monk and the Hangman's Daughter. Chicago: F. J. Schulte & Co.
Birkmaier, Elizabeth G. Poseidon's Paradise; the Romance of Atlantis. San Francisco: Clemens Publishing Co. 50 cents.
Black, W. Macleod of Dare. New and revised ed. Harpers. 90 cents.
Blake, M. M. The Siege of Norwich Castle; A Story of the Last Struggle against the Conqueror. Macmillan. $1.50.
Bornier, Vte. H. de. La Lizardière. W. R. Jenkins. 60 cents.
Castegnier, G. Extraits Choisis des Œuvres de François Coppée. W. R. Jenkins.
Child, Theodore. The Praise of Paris. Harpers. $2.50.
Church, Rev. A. J. Stories from the Greek Comedians. Macmillan. $1.
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